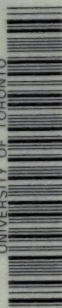
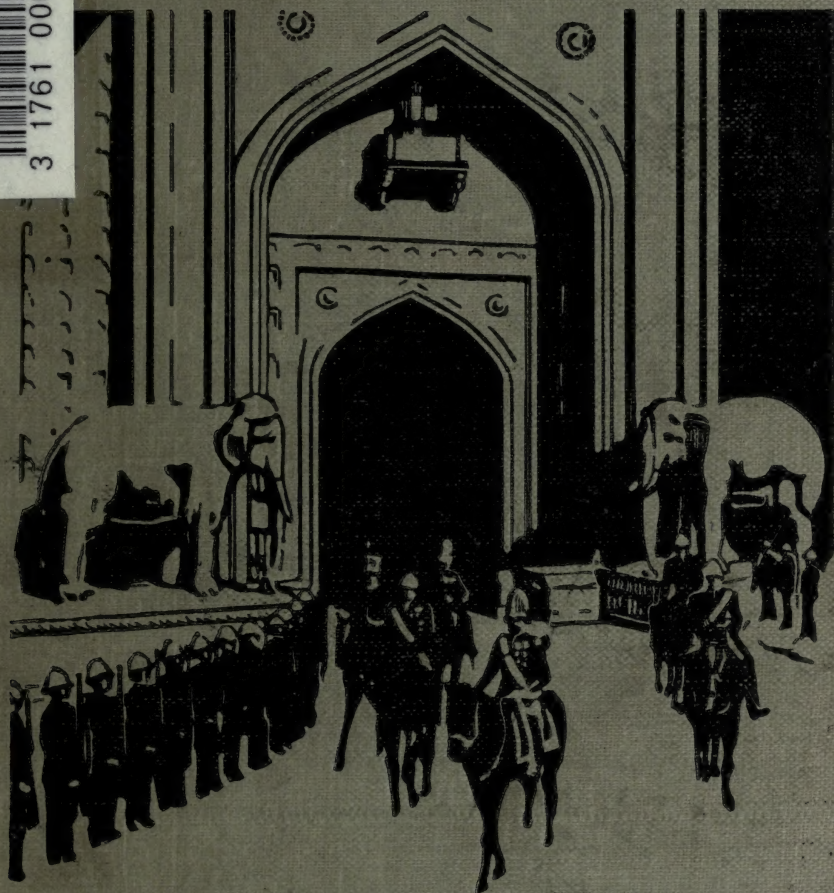


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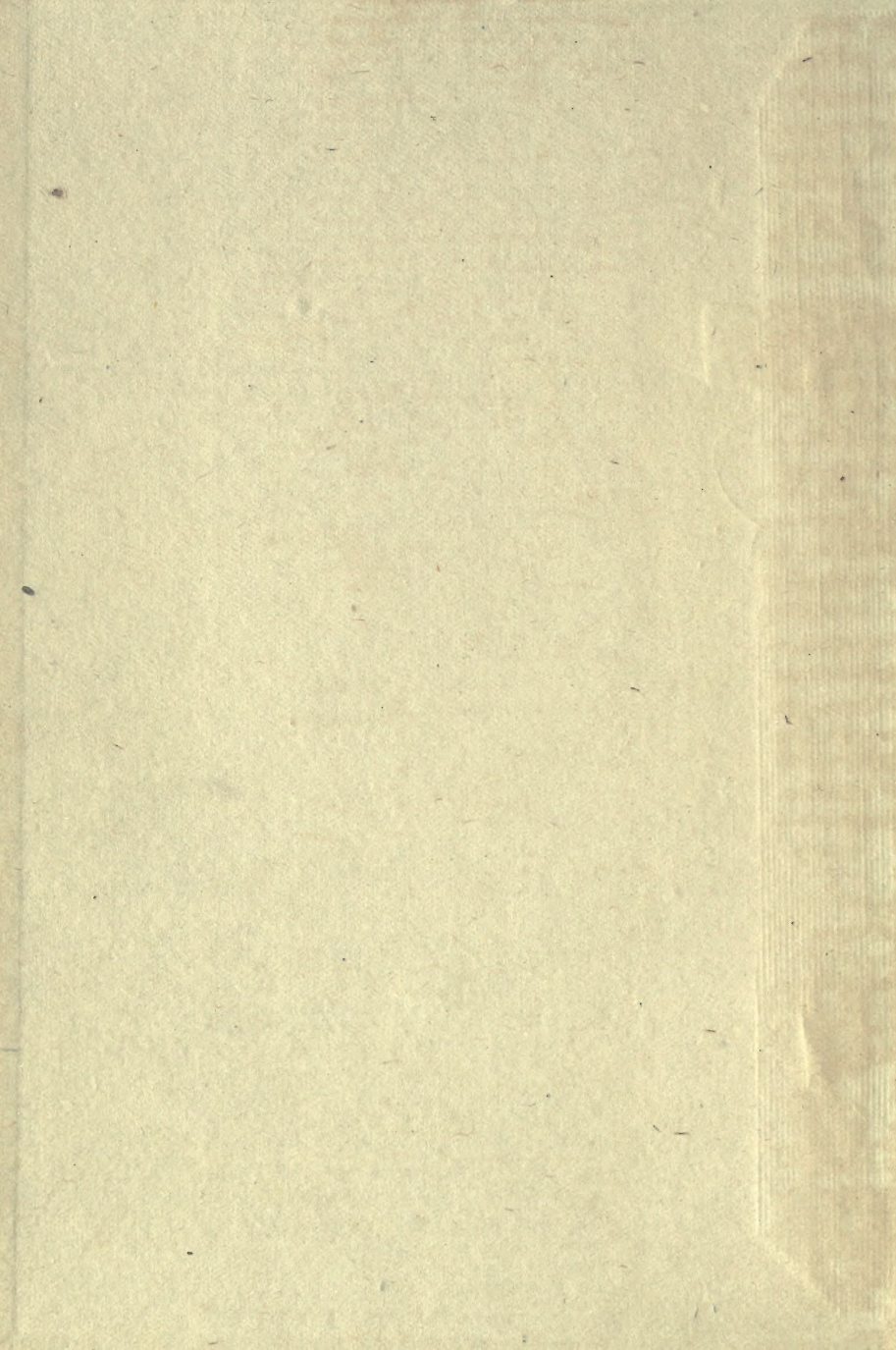
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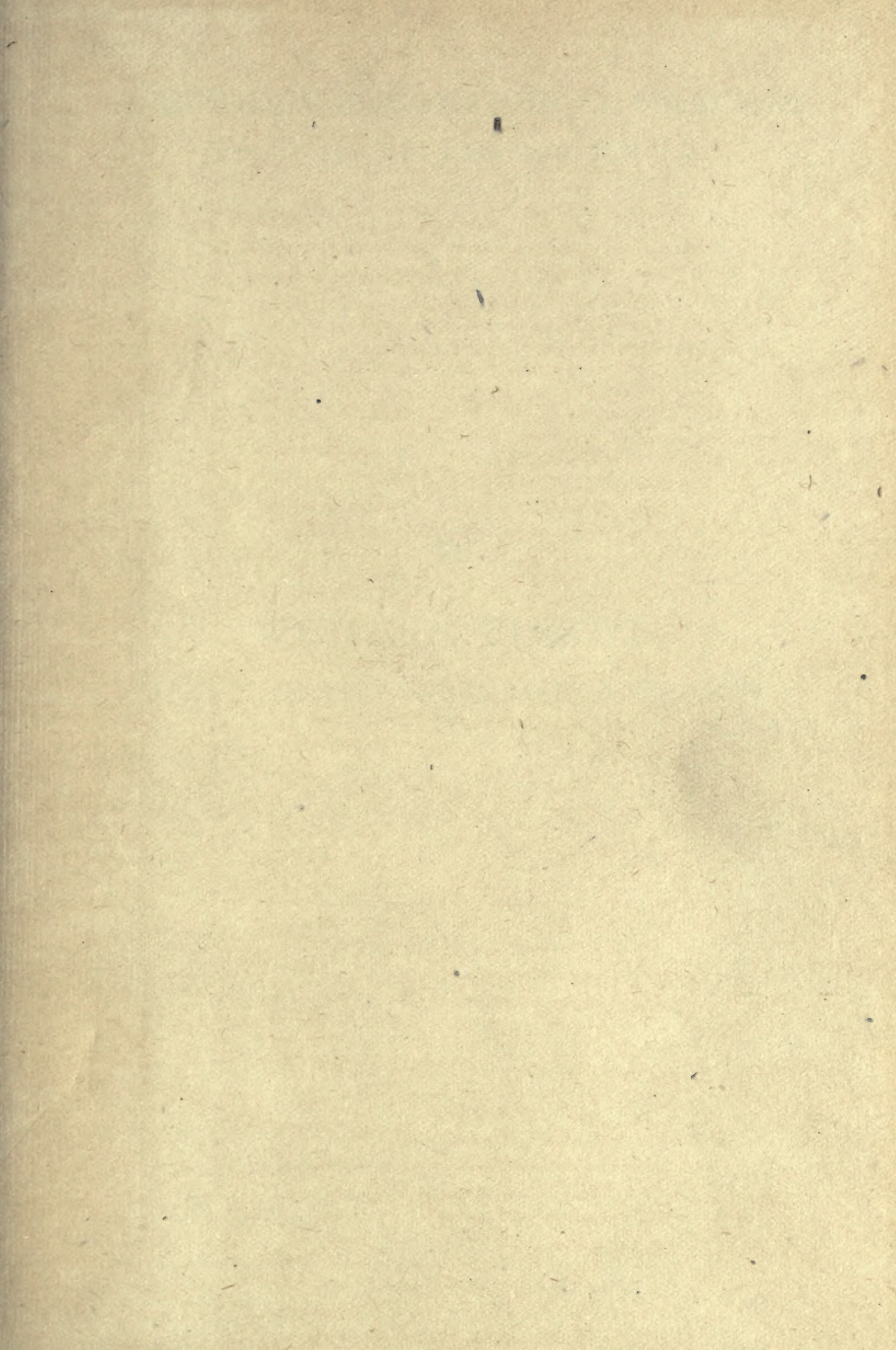
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## IV. WESTERN EUROPE











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EDITED BY G. F. BOSWORTH, F.R.G.S.

IV

WESTERN EUROPE  
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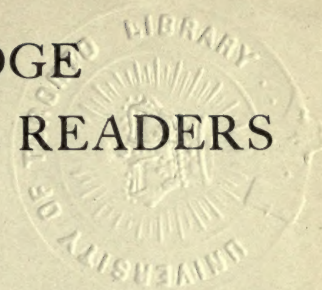
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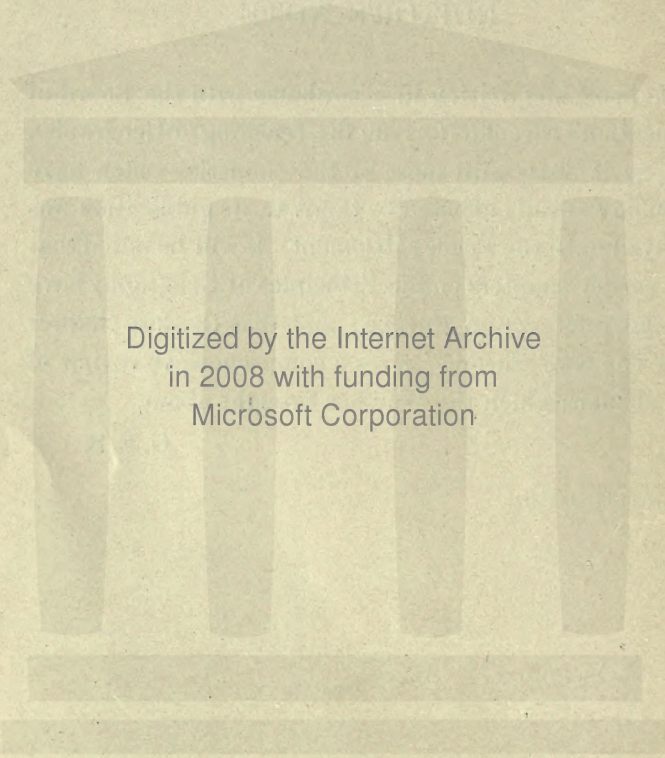


## EDITOR'S NOTE

THIS book was written in accordance with the Board of Education's Circular (834) on the Teaching of Geography, but, as it deals with most of the countries which have been so radically affected by the War, its publication was delayed until the Peace settlement. It will be noted that the earlier chapters on the Principles of Geography have special reference to Europe ; and that the last chapter on "The New Europe" gives a comprehensive review of the changes which the War has brought about.

G. F. B.

*January, 1921.*



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# PART I

## SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF GEOGRAPHY

### 1. SURFACE OF THE EARTH. LAND, WATER AND ICE

When we speak of the surface of the earth we mean that part of the globe which is in contact with the atmosphere. This, as may be seen from a map of the world, is composed of land and water. The land is only 28 per cent. of the whole, while the water covers 72 per cent. of the earth's surface.

A consideration of the earth's surface reveals the fact that the great masses of water keep one general level, while the dry land is varied by hill and dale, mountain and valley. This irregularity of the surface of the dry land we term relief, and in modern maps it is indicated by different colourings, or by contour lines joining portions at the same altitude above the sea-level, from which all elevations on the earth are measured. When we say that Mont Blanc is 15,000 feet high, we really mean that its top is 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. The marked irregularities on the surface of the land are not really very great, when compared with the size of the earth itself. Indeed, the irregularities on the skin of an orange are greater in proportion than those on the earth's surface.

But the ocean floor has even a more monotonous character, with more gentle undulations than the land. Round the great land masses the sea is shallow, when compared with the great ocean depths. This shallower border is termed the "Continental Shelf," and is considered to end where the water is more than 100 fathoms, or 600 feet deep. The features of the dry land run out under the sea; thus the river valleys are prolonged along the Continental Shelf, and give an irregular appearance to the floor of the sea. The slope of a continental shelf is widest and most gradual where it fringes low-lying continents, and narrowest where the mountains approach the coast. Thus on the coast of Norway the shelf is much narrower than on the coast of France, where the mountain masses are remote from the shore line. It is on this shelf that the waste material from the land is brought down, until it extends outward to the steep drop beneath the waters of the ocean.

Here is the great ocean plateau with its awful abysses. Some of these are six miles below the surface, and while the relief of the dry land is constantly changing, the floor of the ocean varies but little from age to age, unless it is disturbed by the internal forces of the solid earth beneath its waters. We speak of the "everlasting hills," but it is the sea, with its movements of tides and storms, that changes least; for these go on from age to age, and appear to the mariners crossing the ocean to-day very much as they appeared to Columbus, when the Atlantic was first crossed by him centuries ago.

If we turn to the land, two features must be noted, the irregularity of its surface and its changeableness. It is the changes that have caused its irregularity, and we at once inquire how the changes are brought about. The

most important agent in changing the face of the land is running water. Aided by other agents, it carves the land into hill and valley, and spreads out on the lower ground the waste material of the higher land.

This work of wearing down the surface of the earth we call "erosion." Let us try to understand how this is brought about. The vapour from the ocean rises, and is poured down in torrents of rain, which sinks into the soil, until it cannot get any farther down. The water then comes to the surface again as springs, or runs off as rills down the slopes of the mountains or hills.

These streams in turn are gathered up, and, flowing from higher to lower ground, finally bring the water back to the ocean. But water must have some assistance in doing its work. Rocks, exposed to the sun and air, split up into large and small fragments, and so gradually change their forms. This we call "weathering." Running water carries these fragments forward, and so the process of grinding down the surface of the earth proceeds.

The sediment or sand that water carries along is "the graving tool sculpturing the face of the earth in all ages." "To the geologist the mountains, standing against the sky, are monuments of forces inside the earth that have lifted them to their majestic height. But once among these giants of nature, the gorges, the chasms and ravines, the torrents and cascades, cutting their way into the solid rock, everywhere in lowland or highland, by the coast as well as on the mountain top, the marvellous results of the action of water are seen."

The action of water, however, is not wholly destructive. In the lower reaches of rivers, the broad plains proclaim the fact that what the rivers have brought down





Stream winding through a mountain valley in Westmorland

has been checked by the incoming tides of the sea. The material worn away in their upper courses is spread out, and in long ages it accumulates to form the rich, fertile land. When this material is brought down to an almost tideless sea a delta is formed. This is how the Nile, the Mississippi, the Ganges and the Po have had their deltas formed, and we can well understand how it is that marshy regions of this sort are liable to floods.

Great as is the effect of running water in changing the relief of the world's surface, we must not forget that erosion and change are brought about by winds as well. On low sandy beaches the wind piles up immense dunes, which flank the shore for miles. We have only to remember the Landes on the south-west shores of France to understand how great these may be. The sand encroaches on fertile land, and this is the case in Egypt along the borders of the Sahara, where the desert sands are piled about the Pyramids and over the vegetation of the Nile valley.

The whole of the forces wearing away the surface irregularities, if left to themselves long enough, would produce a level surface, but the forces from the inside of the earth in turn prevent this by raising the surface again into folds, or, by producing volcanoes, preserve the irregular surface.

We have said nothing about one great agent affecting the face of the world. This is so important that it must be considered by itself. Ice, as we know, is the solid form of water, and although it is now only found in small areas on our globe, yet, in ages gone by, much of Europe and North America was covered with a cap of ice.

This was in the "Ice Age," which brought about so much ruin to the plant and animal life of Europe. If we look at a relief map of Europe, we shall see that the Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Caucasus form a barrier which prevented the plant life from proceeding farther and farther south for safety, as the ice from the frozen north gradually encroached on the land. As a result of this, vast tracts of land lost many of the plants and animals that had existed before the Ice Age came. When things improved, new species came into the land from the East, and took the places of those squeezed out by the icy grip of those ages long past. In North America, which, as we see from the map, has no mountains running across it, the plants and animals had better times, for, having gradually gone south, they returned as the ice covering disappeared.

But large masses of ice are features of the surface of the earth in our day. These we know under the names of glaciers and icebergs. In the Alps there are over 1100 of these rivers of ice, grinding their way down the valleys, till they arrive below the snow-line; and from them issue streams of ice-cold water. The Norwegian glaciers are shorter than these; but a glacier in the Himalayas is sometimes 35 miles long.

Prodigious as these are, they are entirely dwarfed by those of Polar regions. There the snow-line approaches the sea-level, so that the entire surface is covered with an ice-cap similar to the one which, as we have seen, reached far down into Europe, and in our own country as far south as Birmingham. The ends of these Polar glaciers break off and form the icebergs, which in the months of April and May make their way to warmer waters, and are a cause for anxiety to those who cross the Atlantic



at that time of the year. Sometimes the icebergs cause terrible catastrophes, as when the *Titanic* on her maiden voyage in April, 1912, struck one, and sank with a loss of more than 1400 souls. Only Admiral Peary and his servant Henson have reached the North Pole, the centre of this ice region. This they accomplished in April, 1909, and during their journey they saw the sun all the time, for near the North Pole it shines continuously



An Alpine glacier

during the summer months. Peary and Nansen and other Polar explorers have made it clear that there is no land round the North Pole—only an ice-covered sea.

On the opposite side of the earth is the continent of Antarctica. Here, instead of sea, we have land, always frozen over, and without vegetation. Raold Amundsen reached the South Pole in December 1911, which we must remember is the summer of the south. He found

that the interior of Antarctica was mountainous with many glaciers. A little later Captain Scott with his four brave companions also reached the South Pole, but perished on the return journey. The record of their sufferings and heroic deaths forms one of the most enthralling stories of exploration in the world's history.

We will close this chapter by contrasting a valley formed by running water and one formed by the action of a moving glacier. In the ordinary river valley, the general form is that of the letter V, and the river occupies the narrowest part. The glacial valley, on the other hand, is usually flat bottomed, and is described as U-shaped, to show the difference between it and the water-formed river valley.

Steep cliffs rise from the floors of these glacial valleys, and from the summit of the cliffs the side-streams leap into the main valley, and often give rise to waterfalls. In the ordinary rivers, the tributaries join the main stream at about the same level, and these "hanging valleys" of the side-streams, as they are called in the glacial-formed valleys, are absent.

The point where these side-streams of the ice-formed valleys join the main one is of great importance to man. Its presence gives the water-power, which in Alpine villages is used in lighting them with electricity, and for driving the trams, which often carry the tourists on their excursions in this beautiful land. It is on the sides of such valleys that the cattle of the community crop the pasture, for in their path down the valleys the glaciers have covered the rock with a fertile soil, which, being watered from existing glaciers, produces the rich pasturage that renders cattle-rearing an important Alpine industry.

## 2. THE ATMOSPHERE

Surrounding the land and sea, and reaching far above the highest mountains, there is a vast invisible envelope composed of a mixture of gases, which we call air or the atmosphere. The changes that produce winds and storms, the phenomena of dew, clouds and rain, and other conditions that affect climate all take place within a moderate distance from the earth, in the region of this atmosphere.

Four-fifths of the volume of the air is nitrogen gas and one-fifth is oxygen, with but the slightest trace of a heavy gas called carbonic acid. This mixture of gases is able to absorb a very large quantity of water-vapour, which varies according to the temperature, and brings about the changes in the atmosphere that are constantly taking place. Of these changes two are very marked, and have a great influence in all that concerns climate and weather and the use of the atmosphere to living beings.

They are the changes of temperature and the changes of pressure. Changes of temperature, or changes in the level of heat (for temperature means the level of heat and not the quantity), are measured by an instrument called a thermometer, which is to be seen hanging in all the class rooms of our schools.

Perhaps some one will ask how the atmosphere is warmed. The surface of the earth receives nearly the whole of its heat from the sun, and but the very smallest quantity from the interior of the earth itself. It is the sun too that warms the atmosphere; but when we think that the higher we go in a balloon or an aeroplane, and are consequently nearer the sun than when on the earth,



the colder it becomes, this leads us to try to find out how the air is warmed by the sun's rays. The rays of the sun do not warm the air directly, or, in other words, the sun is like a wholesale manufacturer of heat, who only deals with the atmosphere through a middle-man or retailer. There are two such middle-men that we must consider, the water-vapour in the atmosphere, and the earth itself.

If there were no water-vapour in the atmosphere, then the rays of heat would all pass right through it and reach the surface of the earth. As it is, the air always contains a certain amount of water-vapour. Sometimes there is a great deal more than at other times, and so some of the sun's rays are always absorbed, but to a greater degree when the air is rich in water-vapour. This, then, is one way in which the atmosphere is warmed—the water-vapour seizes some of the rays and they warm the air in which they are held captive.

Let us consider now those rays which are not trapped by the water-vapour, but which reach the surface of the earth. Some of these are reflected or thrown back, but they are mostly absorbed by the earth and then radiated or given back slowly. Both kinds, the reflected and the absorbed rays, warm the air; we do not see these rays, for they are dark, and those proceeding from the sun are bright or luminous. The atmosphere, however, can take hold of them, as we have seen it could not do with the rays straight from the sun, were it not for the watery vapour in the air.

How does the vapour in the air behave towards these rays from the earth's surface? We have seen that it kept some and let others pass through the air when coming from the sun, but with those on their return

journey, the dark rays, it acts as a screen and prevents them passing away too rapidly. Gradually, however, the warmth rises, and passes away into the cold regions of space.

There are other causes that affect the temperature of the atmosphere. Clouds, which are masses of the tiniest drops of water, or sometimes minutest particles



A cloud bank at 3000 feet, photographed from above

of ice, check both the rays from the sun from reaching the earth, and the heat from the earth from returning into space. Thus a cloudy day is often cool, and a cloudy night is warm. Winds too produce effects on the temperature. These depend on the place of their origin; thus a sea breeze may be warm in winter and cold in summer, and winds from the land may be hot in summer and cold in winter. We are all familiar with

the south-westerly winds bringing rain and warmth from the Atlantic, and the cold easterly winds from the continent of Europe nipping us in the spring with their icy grip.

We must now try to gather up these results of varying temperature, so that we may learn from the nature of the temperature of large tracts of land on the earth's surface, something that may be of service to man.

As a result of the form of the earth, its moisture, and the inclination of its axis, we get five belts or zones displaying their own characteristics of temperature. But we need something more that will help us in plotting out the regions of the earth. The hottest part of the day is about two o'clock in the afternoon, and the coldest about three in the morning, while the hottest period of the year in the northern hemisphere is towards the end of July, and the coldest is in January. These give the extreme temperatures for the day and the year. By adding the daily averages together, and dividing the sum by the number of days in the month, we shall obtain what is called the mean temperature of the place. If this be done at a number of places, and those having the same average temperature be joined by a line, this line is what is called an isothermal line. On looking at a map on which isothermal lines are drawn for January and July, it will be seen that these lines are very irregular in the northern hemisphere, and more regular in the southern, where there is most water. From this we learn that the temperature of the sea is more uniform than that of the land.

The other great change that is constantly taking place in the atmosphere is the variation in the pressure at different places. Alterations of pressure are measured by



the barometer, with which we are familiar as often hanging in our houses in the form of a weather glass. This instrument measures the weight or pressure of the whole atmosphere. This is roughly 15 pounds on the square inch at the sea-level, and is less and less as we ascend; indeed, the pressure diminishes at the rate of about an inch of mercury for every 900 feet upwards. When the air is charged with moisture, the mercury in the barometer falls. We speak of the air as feeling heavy when the barometer is low, but in reality the pressure is less, and the air is lighter. On a barometer figures are placed to indicate the number of inches the pressure of the atmosphere is exerting. When the barometer stands above 30 inches it is said to be high, when below 30 it is said to be low. The changes in pressure indicate changes in weather, and when these are sudden there is a likelihood of a stormy or windy condition of the atmosphere.

Just as the isothermal lines were drawn on maps through places having the same temperature, so lines are drawn through places having an equal pressure of the air, as indicated by the barometer during a certain period. These lines are called isobars. In *The Times* newspaper, there is each day a chart of north-west Europe on which the isobars, the temperature and direction of the winds are shown for the previous day. Since winds, storms, and rain are due in a great measure to changes of pressure, by looking at these isobars we can form a good idea of the characteristics of the weather likely to prevail in the regions through which they pass.

Thus when they circle round a region of low pressure, and there is a rapid fall in the number of inches, a cyclone or storm of great severity may be expected. On

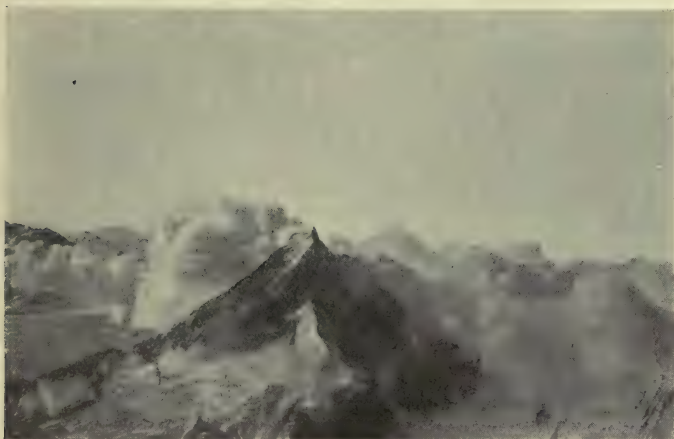
the other hand, when the pressure is high in the centre of a series of isobars, the air flows from the centre outwards, and fine weather in summer, and cold, bright, frosty weather in winter may be looked for.

### 3. RAIN AND RAINFALL. CLIMATIC CONDITIONS

We have seen that the atmosphere always contains some water-vapour. This is constantly being increased until the air will hold no more, or it is said to be saturated. The warmer the air, the more vapour it will hold. When saturated air is cooled, it can no longer hold all its vapour, and therefore it condenses, that is to say, it passes from vapour to small globules of water, or, if the temperature be low enough, into minute crystals of ice.

We are all familiar with the forms which the condensed vapour takes, such as dew, hoar-frost, fogs and mists, clouds and rain, snow and hail. When warm, damp air passes over a chilled surface, its vapour is condensed and a fog is formed. We can understand this by watching the steam coming from the funnel of a railway engine. The hot, saturated air rises up the funnel, and when it mixes with the cold air outside, a cloud of visible vapour is formed. The fogs hanging about rivers, lakes, and marshy districts at night are formed in the same way. Such fogs generally vanish soon after sunrise. Nowhere in the world are dense fogs so prevalent as on the banks of Newfoundland. These are due to the vapour in the warm air from the Gulf Stream being condensed by mixing with the cold air from the Labrador current which flows from the Arctic seas.

A mist differs from a fog in that its particles of water are larger, and so it feels wetter. We may look upon a mist as a fog passing into fine rain, while clouds differ from mists only in position. A cloud is a mist in the higher regions of the atmosphere. As the moist air ascends higher and higher, it is cooled by expansion, and also by mingling with the cold air around. In consequence its water-vapour is condensed into minute



Clouds forming about the summit of a mountain

specks, or "Water Dust," and a cloud is formed. If we watch the clouds, we shall see that they are generally moving. Sometimes they move at a speed of 70 to 100 miles an hour. At other times they may seem to be quite still, even when a strong wind is blowing. We have examples of this in the clouds that hang over the top of Table Mountain at Cape Town, and at the Matterhorn in the Alps.



We can understand how this is by looking at the funnel of an engine once again. Just above the funnel is a space where no cloud of vapour is seen. It is only when it has reached a sufficient distance from the mouth of the funnel, where the air is cold enough to condense it, that the vapour becomes visible. So it is only the cloudy appearance that is stationary; the material of which the cloud is composed is ever changing. As the air moves onwards, its moisture is only condensed sufficiently when it is in contact with the cold currents of air or mountain tops.

Rain differs from fog and cloud only in the size of the water-drops. The minute particles of which a cloud is composed fall very slowly, but if they reach warm air in their path they are evaporated again, and so do not reach the surface of the earth. When the air is cold below the cloud, the tiny specks will not be evaporated, but will join together and fall as rain. Water-vapour always requires something around which it can condense, and this is provided by the specks of dust in the air.

Now we know how it is that rain falls, we must try to find out how it is that some parts of the earth have a great deal of rain, and others have very little rainfall. By the rainfall of a place we mean the total quantity of water that falls from the atmosphere on the district that is being considered.

By measuring the amount of rain that falls in 24 hours, and by adding these daily amounts together for a year, we get the annual rainfall, and then by taking the average for a number of years we obtain the mean annual rainfall. This is measured by means of a rain gauge, and is reckoned in inches. In Great Britain the rainfall in 24 hours is seldom more than an inch, but

in tropical countries 30 or 40 inches may fall in a day. For some distance on either side of the equator there is a belt of constant rains. The currents of warm damp air are constantly rising, and, on getting cooled, they deposit their water-vapour in a ceaseless downpour. High mountains, too, may cause heavy rainfall on the side that meets the wind; for the air, in trying to get over them, rises, and is cooled so much that it parts with its moisture very freely.

When the winds have passed over the ocean, as is the case with the south-west winds striking our western coasts in Britain and the coasts of north-west Europe, rain is abundant. Regions on the leeward side of a range of mountains have a lighter rainfall, especially when they run at right angles to the direction of the prevailing winds. Thus the east of Britain has less rain than the west, and, while the seaward side of the western Ghats has a rainfall of 250 inches, the eastern side gets less than 25 inches of rain.

We notice, too, that deserts are mostly in the interior of the continents and remote from the oceans; for the winds have parted with their moisture before reaching these rainless districts. Such regions are the Arabian desert, southern Persia, the arid tracts of California, and central Australia.

The world has been divided in several ways, into zones, hemispheres, the Old and New Worlds, as well as continents. It will be more instructive and more useful to consider the parts of the world with regard to climate. We must not, however, think that climate has the same meaning as weather. The climate is the average succession of weather, and is only found by making observations for several years, and by taking notice of the tempera-

ture and the amount and times of the rainfall. Thus in the central regions of South America and Africa the rainfall at all seasons and the temperature are always high. Skirting this region is one, including parts of Africa and South America, as well as India, where the chief rains are in the summer, but in winter the climate is comparatively dry.

Another variety of climate is the Mediterranean, where the summers suffer from droughts, and the beauty of the spring months is due to the winter rains, that revive the vegetation which the hot summers dry up. This variety of climate is not confined to the Mediterranean countries, but is found also in California, Chili, South Africa, and in the south-west of Australia.

The western shores of the continents nearer the poles than those we have spoken about have quite a different kind of climate. Here, as in western Europe including our own country, the rain occurs at all seasons, and, coming under the influence of the westerly winds, such regions have a moderate temperature, a plentiful rainfall, and mild winters. Tasmania, New Zealand, and British Columbia also experience such a climate.

Right in the heart of Europe, Asia, and North America the climate is distinguished by very hot summers and very cold winters, and because these regions are far removed from the influence of the ocean, the climates are described as "Continental." Here the rainfall is chiefly in the summer and only occurs at other times in those parts bordering on the east coasts.

In the mountain regions of central Asia and those of western America, where the relief shows ridge and valley, many varieties of climate are found within a small area. The temperature varies with the altitude, and the



rainfall also with the direction of the wind. In such regions warm, sunny valleys are overlooked by snow-capped peaks.

No wonder, then, that each region has its own vegetation, and that a knowledge of climate helps man to get the best out of "Mother Earth."

#### 4. CLIMATE AND VEGETATION. PRINCIPLES OF PLANT DISTRIBUTION

We know that some plants will not thrive as well on one side of our gardens as on the other, and that we have tried plants that will not grow at all. This is also true of large tracts of the earth's surface, and although the soil may be good, there is something about the conditions of climate that favours the growth of vegetation of certain kinds in special regions, and prevents its growth in others.

In the last chapter we considered some of the characteristics of climate in various parts of the world. We shall now see how these influence the clothing of the earth with plants. Before we consider the plant geography of the different parts of the world, it will help us to understand how climate affects vegetation if we learn about the physical conditions necessary for plant life. If plants are to grow well, they must have plenty of light, since this is necessary for them in order to make use of the food which the soil provides. This explains how it is that in Canada, where the summer is short, the great wheat fields yield their immense supplies in a few weeks, for the long summer days provide a long period



Vegetation regions of the world

of sunlight in which the corn can come to maturity with great rapidity, as plants only grow in the light.

Plants take all their food in liquid form and the roots absorb this, or suck it in with the moisture, where it is found in solution; while from the under-surfaces of the leaves this moisture is given off again, or is transpired. In order that a plant may not die, the quantity of moisture taken in must always be more than that given out.

Heat is also necessary to enable the vegetation to take up the moisture from the soil. We cannot separate the effects of heat from those of moisture, however, for the plants in our gardens wither when the ground is very dry, and, likewise, they make very little growth when the weather is wet and cold.

The surface of the earth may be roughly divided into three regions, according to the kinds of vegetation they produce. These are the forests found in wet lands, the grass-lands found in the scantily watered regions, and the deserts, where there is almost a waterless condition of climate.

In the basin of the Amazon, in western Africa around the equator, and in the Monsoon lands of India, where there is an abundance of rain, the forests have very tall trees, interlaced with creepers, with a thick undergrowth often difficult to penetrate. The trees are of many kinds; some are deciduous or leaf-shedding, but plants in leaf, flower, or fruit may always be found, and the forest in consequence is ever green. The earth in this region is covered with a green carpet, for there is no lack of rain at any time and the heat is great.

Both to the north and south of these "rain forests" are the grass-lands of the tropics. These "savannas," as they are called, cover a vast extent in South America, in



eastern Africa, and around the central desert of Australia. Such lands are of park-like appearance, but their grass, unlike the grass of our meadows, is from 6 to 10 feet high, and of dry appearance. The climate here shows a longer period of drought and a greater irregularity of rainfall than in the "rain forest" region, and although there are small shrubs and trees, the large trees of the equatorial forest will not grow.

These regions, however, offer to man one of the most promising fields for his activity, and some of the peoples, in the past, have been highly civilised. The belt of "rain forests" and savannas is bounded by two belts of desert. The one north of the equator stretches from California, through Mexico, across the Sahara and Arabia to the deserts of Persia, and on to the great Mongolian sea of sand. In the south the chain is broken, but it includes the Atacama, the Kalahari, and the Australian deserts.

Deserts are caused by the absence of rain; perhaps for many years only a single shower falls. The atmosphere is excessively dry, and the changes of temperature are both sudden and considerable. All desert climates are not alike, and the nature of the soil makes a difference in the kind of desert vegetation. It is here that plants live under most difficult conditions, but they overcome them in wonderful ways. Some will live for years in the shape of dust-like seeds, and when a shower does come they burst into life, and sprout, flower, and fruit in two or three weeks.

In some cases the plants have coatings that will ensure their losing little water. Others again seem to send their roots down to a depth of more than 30 feet in search of water. Many are clad in a sheath, coated

with wax, or resin, or a kind of varnish of their own, so that little, if any, moisture can be transpired. In some parts there is underground water, and oases with date



Oasis in the Sahara

palms occur. These mark the trade routes across these seas of sand.

We shall find it interesting to pass from the desert region to one of less barrenness—to what is called the

region of evergreen trees and shrubs. This has been called the "Mediterranean region," because it is round the Mediterranean Sea that the form of vegetation produced by this variety of climate, with its winter rains and summer droughts, is so clearly marked. This is a region of evergreen, hard-leaved forests, woods, and shrubs. In summer the landscape has none of the beauty of the early spring, when the land is clothed in fresh verdure and bright flowers. The trees of such a region—for a similar condition is found in California, south-west Africa, and central Chili—are evergreen, and this prevents their leaves from losing the water which it has been so difficult to obtain. The plants are tough-skinned for a similar purpose, and others have long, penetrating roots, to enable them to search underground for the water which is lacking near the surface. The holm oak, olive, and myrtle are the trees that are generally found around the Mediterranean, unless it be in countries like Portugal and Morocco, where there are forests of cork oak, as the result of plenty of rain.

The temperate regions, as well as the tropics, have their grass-lands, known as pampas in South America, prairies in North America, and steppes in Eurasia. These are covered with grass and flowers in spring and early summer, but as the heat increases they become withered and yellow.

Unlike the evergreen trees of the Mediterranean region are the deciduous broad-leaved trees of temperate lands. These are found where there is a fairly abundant rainfall; but when frost stops the absorption of moisture in winter they are bare, and are enjoying their resting time. Such are the oak, beech, birch, and elm, which give such a refreshing aspect to the landscape in summer, and one of golden brown in autumn.



In countries still further from the equator we find the coniferous or pine forests, with their needle-like leaves. The rainfall in their home is scanty, the summers are short, and the winters long and cold. Most of these retain their leaves, for this enables them to seize every opportunity of growth. The needle-like leaves, too, promote their well-being, for the winds pass through the trees without injuring them. They also provide little surface from which the moisture can be transpired. In the frozen north, in Finland and Siberia, is the tundra region. Here the vegetation is of the smallest kind; the mosses and lichens and the few stunted shrubs form a striking contrast to the giant trees of a tropical forest.

After plants have found the conditions of light, heat, and moisture suitable for their growth, they have to overcome many other difficulties. There is a constant struggle with their neighbours. Some may help and some hinder. The tender creepers need the support of the big trees. The bracken on our hills kills grass, and in turn the heather crowds out the bracken. Worms improve the soil and make it suitable for plants like the primrose. Slugs, caterpillars, locusts and other living things lay bare whole gardens, or even tracts of country. It is the plant's own power to succeed in the struggle for existence that decides whether it can live in the surroundings in which it is placed.

## 5. CLIMATE AND MAN. RACES OF EUROPE

We have seen that each of the various regions of the earth has its own particular kinds of vegetation. Thus we do not find the almost impassable growth of the "rain forests" which border on the equator thriving in the icy north. But we do find, in contrast, man living his own life and doing his daily work under every variety of climate on the globe. This might lead us to imagine that, in the case of man, climate makes little difference. It is, however, climate that decides whether man can live at all, and also under what conditions he has to pass his existence.

In the Brazilian forest, with its wonderful natural wealth, we find wandering tribes, as backward as the degraded aborigines of the desert land of central Australia. They have found life too easy, as the latter have found it too difficult, to stimulate any feeling of the necessity for working together for their common good. In the Arctic regions life is a constant struggle for a bare existence, and man must provide for this by his own ingenuity and industry. Climate gives him no assistance, and he has to depend upon the sea and beasts slaughtered in the chase. It is from these sources that he obtains flesh for food, skins for clothing, and fat for fuel. Between these two extremes—where nature does all to provide the food for man, and where man has to do all or perish—the greater part of mankind enjoys a temperate climate. This makes man's life neither so easy as to cause him to sink into a mere feeding animal, nor so severe that he can think of nothing but overcoming the task of keeping body and soul together.

In these regions the annual return of winter shows man that he must depend on what he has stored in the summer, and so teaches him foresight and thrift. The return of spring, with the promise of another harvest, stirs him to fresh activity, and plants courage and hope in his breast for the future conquest of the difficulties that stand in his way.

In our study of the vegetation regions of the earth,



Canadian wheat fields

we merely considered these apart from any thought of man's share in the matter. We do not know when or where agriculture began, but we do know that it has occupied man's attention from ages long before history began to be written. Simple in its beginnings, it has reached a perfection that has enabled man to use and improve the vegetation of the earth, and transfer the plants from one part of the world to another, where



they can grow under equally good, if not better conditions than in their native places. We have only to look at the great wheat fields of Manitoba to realise what can be done by man, when aided by conditions of climate suitable for rewarding his skill and enterprise.

In some regions, however, little progress in cultivation can be made. The steppe lands are too dry for agriculture, and attention has been turned to the keeping of animals; and man pursues his life with but little change from that of his forefathers long ago. In the tundra, the life of which we shall consider later, the drawbacks are even greater. The needs of man are the first ends he has in view, and these lead him to find means to supply them. The weapons, tools, and other utensils, made first to supply his needs, and later to minister to his convenience, have all grown out of his mode of life.

The needs of man in the deserts, hot or cold, are few, and were they many, they could not be supplied. As, however, he has gradually made more and more of his surroundings and found that the conditions of climate would help him, he has added to his wants, and supplied them by increased skill. Beginning with weapons and tools made of stone, he has turned to wood as the material for their construction. But he did not stop there. With the discovery of the use of metals, the "Stone Age" gradually gave place to one of copper, and this, followed later by one of iron, started the peoples of the world on the course of progress, the results of which we enjoy to-day.

As we think of Birmingham and the iron towns that surround it, of those of Belgium and the Rhine valley, and of others across the Atlantic in America, we cannot

but be struck with the marvellous benefits which the discovery of the use of iron has given to man. This discovery was a great achievement, but perhaps an equally great advance was made when, in the middle of the eighteenth century, coal was first used for its smelting. Kind as a climate may be for the growth of trees, it cannot successfully compete with the wholesale destruction of forests for smelting. It is, therefore, impossible to over-estimate the value of the use of coal for this purpose.

The finding of coal and iron near together has raised the iron towns to a position of great importance. It is true that all coal is not suitable for smelting, and that the iron produced by using charcoal is of very fine quality. This latter means, however, was beginning to fail, when the primeval forest, in the shape of coal, came to the rescue. The vast stores of coal remind us that the effects of climate, by means of which this stored sunlight cheers our homes and drives our machinery, have ever been a factor in fixing the nature of the life of man on the earth.

We shall now try to form an idea of the races that live on the continent of Europe. Various ways of distinguishing these might be employed, but by considering the shapes of the human skull—the long skull and the round—and the colouring of the hair and eyes, we can go on with our inquiry. In Europe the long, narrow-skulled peoples are found both in the north and in the south. The peoples of Scandinavia, north Germany, Britain, the Spanish peninsula, and Sicily belong to this race. Between them are the round-skulled people, extending from Asia through the middle of Europe to France. These are known as the Alpine race.

As we proceed southwards from Scandinavia, the dark colouring of the hair and eyes of the peoples increases, until in Spain and Italy it is general. We shall find that the southern or Mediterranean peoples are long-skulled and dark. The Scandinavian or northern peoples are long-skulled and fair, while between them is the Alpine race with rounded skulls, and neither very dark nor very light in colour.

In the early centuries of the Christian era the Slavs, who were of the Alpine race, increased rapidly in numbers and spread widely over the east of Europe. From these the bulk of the Russian people to-day are descended.

We can get a good idea of the extent of the different races by considering the languages spoken, but we must not suppose that all peoples speaking the same language are of the same race. Thus we find that Latin is the parent language of Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese, as well as of the language spoken in parts of Belgium, Switzerland, and Austria; but these peoples are not all of Mediterranean stock.

Following these early-comers were the Teutons, a fair-haired, blue-eyed people, who are now found in Germany, Scandinavia, Denmark, Holland, and Britain. Of the two forms of Teutonic speech, "High German" and "Low German," the latter is the more interesting to the people of Britain, for their language belongs to this branch. Perhaps we shall remember this better if we call "Low German" lowland German, and "High German" highland German, for the first is spoken in the lowlands bordering on the Baltic and the second in the southern, or highland, regions of the German empire.

The Lapps and Finns, in the north of Scandinavia,





Italian peasants

some tribes in the north of Russia, the Poles, the Magyars in Hungary, and the Turks speak languages quite different from the other varieties of what is called the Aryan group. At the western end of the Pyrenees about half a million people—the Basques of Spain and France—speak a language of their own, which bears no relation to any other tongues of Europe. Jews are scattered over Europe, and in most cases they speak a corrupt form of the Hebrew language in addition to that of the country in which they dwell.

## PART II

### THE BRITISH ISLES AND NORTH- WESTERN EUROPE

#### 6. THE BRITISH ISLES. THEIR RELATION TO NORTH-WEST EUROPE

Before Columbus discovered America, Britain was at the western edge of the known world. Now we regard our island home as being at the centre of the land hemisphere. In ancient days "Kent was the window from which England looked out" into the great world of European activity. Nothing but the unknown ocean met the gaze of the lonely Celt on the western shores of the British Isles. For centuries the English were a race of shepherds rather than seamen.

If we stand on Dover Castle and take a long look across the Strait, we can in clear weather get a glimpse of the white cliffs on the French coast. This is the only land visible from our island home. But in the long ages ago, before any history was written, Britain was not cut off from the continent of Europe as it is now. Indeed, the British Isles formed the edge of the continent itself, facing the unknown Atlantic. We are led to this conclusion for several reasons.

Shakespeare's Cliff at Dover and the other chalk cliffs of the Kentish coast are formed of the same material as those on the French coast near Calais. The rocks of Cornwall, stretching out into the English

Channel at the Lizard, are matched by the rocky coast of Brittany. This points to a time in the world's history when they were joined together. As we follow the coast along the eastern shores of Britain, fresh signs meet us, showing that the low land around the Wash, the Fens, and parts of Lincolnshire is only a continuation of the great plain of Europe, that sinks so low on the other side of the North Sea. The bold granite cliffs of the north of Scotland are but companion rocks to those of the land of the Vikings on the Norwegian coast. What is now the North Sea, with its rich fishing grounds, was, in those remote ages, but a low-lying valley through which the Rhine flowed to meet the sea in the far north, and the Thames was but a tributary of this famous river.

Almost shut off from the North Sea by the peninsula of Jutland and the neighbouring islands is the Baltic Sea. It, too, is shallow, and its waters are not so salt as those of the ocean. The taste of the Baltic is due to the large quantity of fresh water it receives from the many great rivers that flow into it from Germany and Russia, as well as from the many smaller ones that come down from the north-western highlands, across the terraces of the plateau in Sweden. In some places masses of mud and stones brought down by the rivers are actually filling it up. The dangerous shoals which are thus formed render it necessary for the sailors in the Baltic to take frequent soundings to prevent running their vessels aground.

Unlike the coasts of Norway and Scotland, the shores of the Baltic are low. It is really a submerged extension of the great plain northwards, as the North Sea is on the east. As soon as winter sets in large sheets of ice begin to form along its low coasts and gradually extend



far out to sea, until the Baltic ports are closed for some months. The harbours and the mouths of the rivers, however, are kept open as long as possible by means of very strong, heavy steamers, built for this purpose; but in the end the frost is too severe for them, and the traffic is entirely stopped.

The Baltic trade is very important, for the countries around it produce grain, timber, flax, and hemp, which many ships bring to British ports, returning with manufactured goods and coal.

The Baltic is connected with the North Sea by the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, which extends for 61 miles through the isthmus of Slesvig. This connects Kiel on the Baltic with the mouth of the Elbe, and forms a ready means for vessels to pass from the Baltic to the North Sea. Among the numerous islands at the entrance to the Baltic, three channels are open for navigation. These are the Sound, the Great Belt, and the Little Belt. The Sound is the only safe channel, and it lies between the most southerly point of Sweden and the island of Zealand, upon which Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark, is built.

The continental edge of the Great Plain of Europe stretches from Jutland to Calais. This is covered with a soil, some of which has been brought down by glaciers, and some by the Rhine and Maas. The coasts of these lands are low and sandy, and are bordered by sand dunes and dykes which protect the land from the ravages of the sea. There is always a danger of the sea breaking them down, and in the thirteenth century the vast inlet, the Zuyder Zee, was so formed.

The plain is continued inland towards Paris, and the slope is towards that city. This is very similar to the

English plain and Paris occupies a position similar to London. The greater part of the district is drained by the Seine, which collects the water from the hills, on three sides, by its many streams. The most important meet in the neighbourhood of Paris, and this accounts for the frequent flooding of the Seine, which brings such trouble to the Parisians.

The climate of the coast regions of north-west Europe and the British Isles is under the beneficial influence of the moisture-laden south-west winds, which render them neither too hot in summer nor too cold in winter. The North Sea margins of the continent, however, find these winds robbed of much of their moisture by the British Isles, which form the real Atlantic border, and the rain falls chiefly in summer and autumn. We are all familiar with the rainy nature of Ireland and the western parts of Britain, and we know also how the rainfall diminishes as we approach the eastern coast. The North Sea is not wide enough to replenish the winds with moisture, and so, when blowing on the opposite continental coasts, they do not bring to Holland, Belgium, and northern France the quantity of rain that might be expected from their Atlantic origin. Norway, like Britain, has a mild and moist climate, and so has Denmark, although a great deal of foggy weather is experienced in that country. Both countries in common with the British Isles enjoy the advantages of the western seaboard. Only on the immediate ocean margins, however, in Scandinavia, the British Isles, western France, and western Spain is the rainfall abundant at all seasons. The lands bordering on the North and Baltic Seas have their autumn rains continued into December, and in the months of January and February these seas do little, if

anything, to warm the neighbouring lands, which in these months are cold and dry.

The ports along the seaboard of north-west Europe are open all the year, and the weather is not cold enough in winter to stop work. This has proved a great advantage to countries bordering on the sea in this region. Some adventurous voyages were made by the Vikings



*The Aquitania*, an Atlantic liner

in early days and in mediaeval times, and a good deal of trade was carried on by sea in coasting vessels. It is, however, only since America has become a settled country that the ocean has become the scene of great commercial routes between the Old and the New World. We have only to think of the great British liners and those from the continent, crossing and recrossing the

Atlantic, to form some idea of the advantages which the position of north-west Europe has brought to the peoples of those countries bordering on its seaboard.

## 7. THE BRITISH ISLES AND THE SEAS OF NORTH-WEST EUROPE

We have seen that Britain was, in times long gone by, joined to the mainland of Europe. This at once leads us to think that the seas between Britain and the continent are not very deep. Such indeed is the case, and "were St Paul's cathedral sunk in the Strait of Dover, the dome would rise above the water in the deepest part." Northward and westward of the strait, the Narrow Seas, a name given to the North Sea, and the English Channel increase in depth. It is not, however, until we get beyond the Shetland Isles in the north, and far beyond the Land's End in the west, that any great depth is found.

If the seas around the British Isles were dry, their beds would appear like a sloping plain with an occasional rising here and there. For instance, a little more than half way across the North Sea, between Britain and Denmark, and stretching from Newcastle to Scarborough, is the great shoal called the Dogger Bank. South of the Dogger and midway between East Anglia and Holland is a second but smaller one, known as the Well Bank.

This great sand-bank is the scene of the rich fishing industry, which provides fish for the London and other markets of the north-western towns of Europe. Here English, Dutch, and French fishermen are busily engaged in catching cod, herring, turbot, mackerel, whiting, and



haddock, with which steamers hurry away to the various ports for their distribution.

The Irish Sea divides Ireland from Great Britain. It is a miniature Mediterranean, wholly British, and is hemmed in by England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland. From Snae Fell, a height of 2000 feet, in the Isle of Man, the mountains of all four countries can be seen. The southern entrance to the Irish Sea is St George's Channel,



A Scottish firth

while St Patrick's, or the North Channel, on the north gives entrance to the ports of Glasgow and Liverpool.

From Cape Clear, at the south-western corner of Ireland, to the Shetland Isles stretches the oceanic border of the British Isles. This consists of a maze of channels, resembling the fjords of Norway; it is really "a half drowned shore." The fjords of Norway and the firths of Scotland are themselves drowned river valleys,

and each firth or fjord "may be traced up to a valley, and each chain of islands and peninsula to a hill ridge in the interior of the land."

We have seen that the seas around the British Isles are shallow. Indeed, these islands are the elevated portions of the Great Plain of Europe, which stand above the sea, while the portion of the plain under the sea is spoken of as a submarine platform. In an earlier chapter we learnt that the actual shore lines do not form the true borders of continents, and that such a platform as this, covered by shallow water, is called a continental shelf. On such a shelf stand the British Isles, and they form what is known as a group of "continental islands."

The north-western countries of Europe, and especially the British Isles, owe a great debt to the extent of this continental shelf. The rise and fall of the water in the broad Atlantic is very slight, but when the tidal wave reaches the submarine platform on the south-west of the British Isles it is sharply checked, and is split up into various branches which encircle the British Isles. One branch proceeds up the west coast of Ireland, sending a part of its waters through the North Channel into the Irish Sea, while the main portion continues its course round the north of Scotland, through the Pentland Firth, and then comes down the North Sea.

When this reaches the Dogger Bank, the tidal wave is split up, one part passing off to the coast of Norway and the other to the estuary of the Thames. An offshoot of this tide, however, passes through the deep channel, known as the Silver Pits, between the Dogger and the Well Banks, and makes for the port of Hamburg. While this has been going on, another branch has been

entering the Irish Sea by St George's Channel, and, by meeting the waters that have come through the North Channel, gives to Liverpool its excellent conditions as a port.

A third part of the tidal wave is at the same time proceeding up the English Channel, on its way to the Strait of Dover, to meet the northern tide. Their united effect is to give London its supremacy as a British port, and to enable ships to reach the various docks in the heart of the capital.

As the English Channel wave approaches the Isle of Wight, part of it enters the Solent and brings a high tide to Southampton. In two hours' time the other portion enters Southampton Water round the Island, by way of Spithead, and so causes a double set of tides, a circumstance that gives a great advantage to Southampton as a port, for vessels missing one tide may avail themselves of the second.

On looking at the map, it will be seen that the ports on the north-western seaboard of Europe are placed at considerable distances from the coast, while those on the Mediterranean are situated close to the sea. The former, or estuarine, type of harbour is the most common among the great ports.

London, Liverpool, Hamburg, Bremen, Antwerp, and Rotterdam are examples. Thus London is 40 miles and Hamburg 75 miles from the mouths of the rivers on which they stand. This is due to the fact that the tides, heaped up by the continental shelf, carry ships far inland, a result not possible in the almost tideless Mediterranean.

Ports so placed have a great commercial advantage. Ships can convey their cargoes, at less cost, far into the heart of a country, and so the commerce of the sea

becomes linked up with the trade of the interior. Such ports, however, are liable to the silting or choking up of the river mouths, as well as the formation of sand-banks, and constant dredging is necessary. Norway, with its coast deeply indented by the fjords and protected by islands, is well provided with natural harbours.

In recent years, larger and larger ships have been



A Thames dredger

built, and this has caused commerce to become centred in a few great ports. When it is impossible or too expensive to keep the estuaries open for the immense liners, the ports are extended, as it were, down the estuary to meet the ships. Thus Tilbury docks have been constructed 25 miles below London Bridge to accommodate the largest vessels engaged in the London



trade. Avonmouth does a similar duty for the port of Bristol, and Hamburg has its "out-port" at Cuxhaven.

Not only do the tidal currents of the seas of north-western Europe aid the shipping industry, but they also influence the movements of the fish in the North Sea. Herrings leave the waters of Norway in spring for those rich in oxygen drawn from the Atlantic, and the fish appear in shoals off the Scottish coast. The young flat fish, brought to life off the mouth of the Elbe, migrate along the bottom of the sea to the east coast of Britain, and become a source of wealth to British fishermen.

The north Atlantic fisheries stretch far into Arctic waters, extending to the shores of Iceland, as well as around the north coast of Scandinavia. The Norwegian fishing grounds, farther south, yield cod and herring as well as salmon. Thus in the matter of climate, in the splendid position for the ports, and in the rich harvest of the sea, Nature has been very kind to the countries of north-west Europe.

## 8. FRANCE

12 France, the first country of north-west Europe we shall consider, is Britain's nearest continental neighbour, and less than an hour's trip across the Strait of Dover will take us to Calais. On a clear day the coast of France may be seen from our own land. France and England lie facing each other, not only across the Strait of Dover, but also on either side of the English Channel, which is called by the French "*La Manche*," meaning "*The Sleeve*," on account of its shape. Before this country was called England and when France was called

Gaul, the Britons and the Gauls traded together and were friendly. Across the strait Caesar crossed to Britain, and more than a thousand years later William the Norman came and made himself the Conqueror. Ever since, the history of Britain and France has been closely connected. English kings have held broad lands in France, and sometimes even more extensive than those of the King of France. When Calais, the last town in France held by the English, was recovered by the French in Queen Mary's reign, the enmity did not cease, but went on until the battle of Waterloo, in which the great Napoleon was defeated in 1815.

France is one of the most beautiful and most important countries of Europe. Its bright skies, its fertile plains waving with corn, its sunny slopes richly decked with vines, which at the time of vintage hang thick with clusters of purple grapes, make us ready to say with the patriotic Frenchman, "La Belle France." France is about twice the size of Britain, but the population of both countries is about equal.

Situated between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, France does much business on the water. It has one drawback, however, for there are few good harbours, and much of the coast is either rocky or sandy, and is ill-provided with seaports.

Forming the boundary between France and Spain are the great rugged masses of the Pyrenees, almost impassable except by a few tracks, and these only with considerable difficulty. France's eastern frontiers are the Alps, dividing it from Italy, and farther north the famous Jura mountains, which contain Mont Blanc, a peak of more than 15,000 feet in height. The French Jura mountains merged into the Vosges between France and



Mont Blanc

Germany and formed the boundary before the war; but now that Alsace and Lorraine have been recovered by France the boundary is the river Rhine, while the north-eastern boundary between France and Belgium lacks any real natural division.

The surface of the country may be divided into three districts, each with characteristics of its own. The north, at the outbreak of war, was a country of apple orchards and cornfields, and forms part of the Great Plain of Europe. This part, however, was far from being a dull and uninteresting region. The rich pastures, orchards, and gardens, with the rising uplands, the slopes of which were crowned with forests of elm, oak, ash, and beech, and the cottages and farm-houses dotted about here and there, gave a charm to the scene. Crops of waving corn and sugar-beet clothe the fields of the north-east, and to the west is the beautiful province of Normandy, famous alike for its fruit, corn, and dairy farms. From the Vosges to the sea, all along the Belgian frontier, the ravages of war have destroyed the beauty and productiveness of northern France. The French, however, are working very energetically to bring back order and fertility to this devastated area. Fruit trees might be seen growing in the cornfields and along the boundaries between the fields, and the rich harvest of fruit went a long way to pay the rent for the French cultivator. On the extreme west of northern France is Brittany. The soil here is poor, but many of us are familiar with the Breton onion sellers, who come to this country in the autumn and hawk their onions from door to door. They are soon at home among us, and Welsh and Breton can easily make themselves understood, for their languages have much in common.



Central France is the land of the vine. Many market gardens grow vegetables and fruits for Paris and other large towns, but the vineyards are the distinguishing feature of this part of France. We might fancy that the vines grow somewhat like the hops in an English hop garden, but such is not the case. The vines are shrubs, never above five feet high, and are planted



British troops in the Champagne in 1918

in regular rows. The leaves are of a dull green colour, but in autumn they are beautiful in their tints of crimson and gold.

There are three great vine-growing districts in France. The Champagne district is in the north-east, chiefly in the valley of the Marne, which is a tributary of the Seine. These vines grow on a chalky soil, and from their white

grapes the expensive sparkling wines named from the district are produced. The vats for storing the wines are cut out of the limestone rock, caverns being made for this purpose. Millions of bottles are kept here, where they are stored for three years before being sent out. It was in the valley of the Marne that two decisive battles of the Great War occurred, the first in September 1914 and the second at the end of the conflict. Much of the wine stored in the northern Champagne district was looted by the German troops, and great damage was done to the future of this wine-producing region.

The second wine-producing district is the valley of the Garonne, which joins the Dordogne to form the Gironde. The grapes in this district are of the red variety from which claret is made; large quantities of this wine are sent out from Bordeaux.

On the central tableland, east of the Auvergne mountains, lies the Côte d'Or, or the "Golden Slopes," richly clad with vineyards, from the grapes of which the wine known as Burgundy is produced. There is no waste of ground here, for black currant bushes and potatoes are planted in every space unfitted for the vine or fruit trees.

Southern France is hot and dry, but in the sheltered valleys the olive and mulberry thrive. Here groves of mulberry trees may be seen, whose leaves are used for food by the silk-worms, and, although much is imported, large quantities of silk are produced in the Rhone valley around Lyons.

The peasant of France occupies a very different position from that of the English labourer. He may look even poorer, but he is working for himself. He has his vineyard, his pastures, or his cornfields; he makes the

most of every inch of land, and the whole of his farm is kept with perfect neatness so that weeds are not to be seen.

These peasant proprietors not only make a living, but save money. This they invest in the purchase of fresh land or in the public funds, which we in England call "stocks." On the days when the interest is paid, men in blue blouses and women in homespun gowns may be seen in the country towns, crowding into the banks for their dividends. The French peasant works early and late, and puts into his work all the heart and energy of his vivacious nature, because he feels he is working for himself and will enjoy the fruit of his own labours. Frenchmen are very proud of their own country, and consider themselves the most civilized and enlightened of nations. They are brave, industrious, lively, and warm-hearted, but at times excitable and impulsive. The warm, sunny climate favours an out-of-door life, and meals are largely taken in the open air.

On Sundays the shops, cafés, and restaurants are open; and after attending a religious service in the morning the Frenchman feels quite at liberty to indulge in amusements and other occupations.

The government of France is a republic, at the head of which is the President. He is elected for seven years, and performs duties similar to those performed by our King. Unlike the British sovereign, however, he need not be related in any way to those who have held the office before him.

The French Parliament is composed of two chambers, the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The Deputies are elected by the people, and so are the members of the Senate, but in a different way. Every Frenchman

must serve in the army for three years, and then he is held in reserve in case of war. The French soldier is met with everywhere, and even before the war he was a conspicuous feature of the streets, in his blue coat and red trousers; in the war he was clothed in the less showy light blue uniform which has now become so familiar.

## 9. PARIS AND THE SEINE

Paris, the capital of France, standing on the Seine, about a hundred miles in a straight line from its mouth, is one of the most beautiful cities in the world. Visitors flock to Paris, especially in the spring; for then its handsome streets, gay with the fresh green of the trees, are at their best.

No capital in Europe has more influence on the people of its own country than has Paris. London is three times the size of Paris, but the people of Britain do not follow the lead of London as the people in all parts of France follow the lead of Paris.

Paris has grown from a little town, built on an island in the Seine more than two thousand years ago, to be the magnificent city it is to-day. Unlike our English cities, it is surrounded by a fortified wall, and through many gates entrance is made to the city itself. At these it seems strange to English visitors to watch officers board the trams and other vehicles, and examine baskets and packages being taken into the city, to see if they contain anything liable to pay the special city duty or tax.





The Pont au Change, Paris

No city in the world has so many noble buildings as Paris. Louis XIV took down the old fifteenth century walls and made in their places wide, handsome streets, planted with trees. These tree-lined streets are called the boulevards, and are among the finest features of the city. Viewed from an eminence on a bright day, the Seine seems to wind through Paris like a pale green ribbon with many folds. Numerous bridges cross the river, which divides the city into two parts, having quite different characteristics.

On the right, or north, bank is fashionable Paris, with its magnificent buildings, triumphal arches, columns of victory, and all that gives it the right to be called the "Gay City."

On the left bank quite a different Paris exists. This is the Latin Quarter. It is an older, quieter city, with narrow streets and tall old-fashioned houses. Here the student, the lawyer, and the man of learning are to be found. On this side of the river is the Pantheon, where memorials to great Frenchmen are erected by a grateful country.

Not far away is the tomb of Napoleon, the gilded dome of which may be seen from many parts of the city. The body of the great general was brought from St Helena and placed in this magnificent building, which is one of the wonders of Paris. Peculiar effects are produced by the glass in the windows. On one side the amber colour gives the impression of perpetual sunshine, while on another side, the colouring gives the effect of endless winter. Every visitor to Paris sees the Eiffel Tower. It is nearly a thousand feet high, is made entirely of steel, and is the highest building in the world.

Just across the river is the Trocadero palace. By

ascending one of its towers a magnificent view of Paris is obtained. This is not so extensive as that to be gained by ascending the dizzy height of the Eiffel Tower, but it is more distinct. Away to the west is the beautiful Bois de Boulogne, which, with its many parks, gardens, lakes, and walks, is the pride of Paris. The Bois is the favourite place for driving and riding on horse-back, and at about four o'clock in the afternoon the fashionable drives are thronged with carriages and motor cars. Like our Hyde Park, this is the place to see the fashions of the city, and they can be seen even better than in London, for the owners dismiss their carriages to stroll along the well-gravelled walks.

A long time could be well spent examining the bird's-eye view of Paris from the Eiffel Tower. In a northerly direction is Porte St Denis, named after the patron saint of Paris. Both Porte St Denis and Porte St Martin now stand at crowded crossings, but at one time they were actual gates of the city, for Paris has outgrown its walls many times. To the east is seen the fine column with a figure of Liberty on the top. This is called the July Column, and was erected to commemorate the Revolution of July, 1830. It stands in a wide open space near the site of the prison of the Bastille, which played such an important part in the French Revolution of 1789. Farther to the east rises the donjon of Vincennes, an eastern suburb of Paris, where the English king, Henry V, died.

All the finest streets in Paris are new. The most beautiful in all Paris is the avenue of the Champs Élysées, and a drive along this for nearly two miles between the beautiful avenues of trees, skirted with gorgeous hotels and splendid buildings, gives one of

the finest sights of the city. At the top is the Triumphal Arch begun by Napoleon I. This is the largest triumphal arch ever built, and on it are the names of the many victories gained by the French from 1789 to Napoleon's defeat at the battle of Waterloo. From this arch twelve streets run off in different directions and form a perfect star. The names of these twelve big avenues remind the Frenchmen of to-day of their great soldiers and great victories.

One of the most magnificent squares in the world is the Place de la Concorde. This has seen many of the historical events of Paris. In the centre is an Egyptian obelisk, brought from Luxor, which marks the spot where Louis XVI and his beautiful queen, Marie Antoinette, with thousands of the citizens of Paris perished in the French Revolution.

The views from this square towards the Triumphal Arch, along the magnificent Champs Élysées, to the church of the Madeleine, and to the Seine are unsurpassed. Across the river may be seen the Chamber of Deputies, which corresponds to the English House of Commons.

Not far away are the Tuileries gardens. The palace was partly burnt in the terrible rebellion of 1871, and what is left is used for government offices.

Beyond is the Palace of the Louvre, now a great picture gallery and museum, where some of the finest paintings and statues in the world may be seen. Both the Tuileries and the Louvre were royal palaces of the kings, after they had left the island palace, which is now the Palace of Justice, where the judges sit.

We now come to the oldest part of Paris, the island of the city. From this spot Paris has spread out in all





The Seine and Notre Dame de Paris

directions. When the Romans came, a city was already there. It was the home of a Gallic tribe, called the Parisii, from which Paris has taken its name. Many other fine buildings may be seen in Paris, but we will finish with the cathedral of Notre Dame, one of the most famous churches in the world. Nothing remains of the one built 1400 years ago, but the present edifice is full of interest and charm. The front, with its two square towers, is adorned with rich carvings, and inside are splendid pictures and statues.

It is easy to get about Paris, for the underground railways, the motor buses, and the steamboats on the Seine make progress to all parts an easy task. The steamers on the Seine are as much used as our London railways. It is a river of pleasure, but its tributaries also link up the city with the rich provinces of central and northern France, the vineyards of Burgundy, and the orchards of Normandy, and so make Paris a city of plenty.

## 10. THE INDUSTRIES OF THE FRENCH

The French obtain most of their food supplies from their own land, and almost half of the working population is engaged in tilling the soil. The land is divided into small holdings and, as we have seen, the farmers in many cases own their farms. France is one of the greatest wheat-growing countries of the world, and this cereal is cultivated in almost all parts of the country. It is, however, grown chiefly in the district to the south-east of Paris, in the province of Burgundy, and in the fertile valleys in the Auvergne mountain region, as well as in

that of the Garonne. Oats are also largely grown, as well as rye and barley. To grow maize a moist warm climate is necessary. As Burgundy and Aquitaine, in the south-west of the country, have such a climate, maize is grown in these districts. In Normandy and Brittany the winds from the sea bring much moisture, so that, like the west of England, those provinces have many pastures



Normandy peasants

and fewer cornfields. They send butter to England as well as to Paris. Apple orchards abound, and cider is the chief drink, as it is in the apple-growing county of Devon. Many market-gardens are found around Paris, and the early produce of Brittany is exported to London.

France is more famous than any other country for making wine, and in the centre and south are many

vineyards, where grapes, both for fruit and for wine production, are grown. For ten years from 1875 to 1885 the vineyards were attacked by an insect, called the phylloxera, which caused great destruction among the vines; but this difficulty has been overcome, and the production of wine, now that the war is over, will regain its former importance. Along the Rhone valley the vine and the mulberry, used for rearing silkworms, grow in the same districts, and in Provence the vine and olive are similarly associated, while around Nice the vine is found with orange groves.

Beet-root for the manufacture of sugar flourishes in the valley of the Somme and the upper valleys of the tributaries of the Loire.

Many of the French are engaged in tending oxen, sheep, and other animals used for food. The rearing of cattle and poultry is an important occupation in the north of France, and large supplies of eggs and poultry are sent from Normandy and Brittany to this country.

French fishermen are not only occupied round the coast, but they also go as far as Iceland and Newfoundland to carry on their work. The herring fishery is the most valuable, and after it comes the sardine fishery of the Mediterranean and the Bay of Biscay.

Although France is largely an agricultural country, yet a quarter of its population is supported from industries connected with minerals and the manufacture of woven materials. In these days of steam-driven machinery it is necessary, if manufactures are to be carried on successfully, that there should be plenty of coal. This must be found in the neighbourhood of manufacturing towns, or it must be obtained cheaply from other parts. France is not so well favoured in this

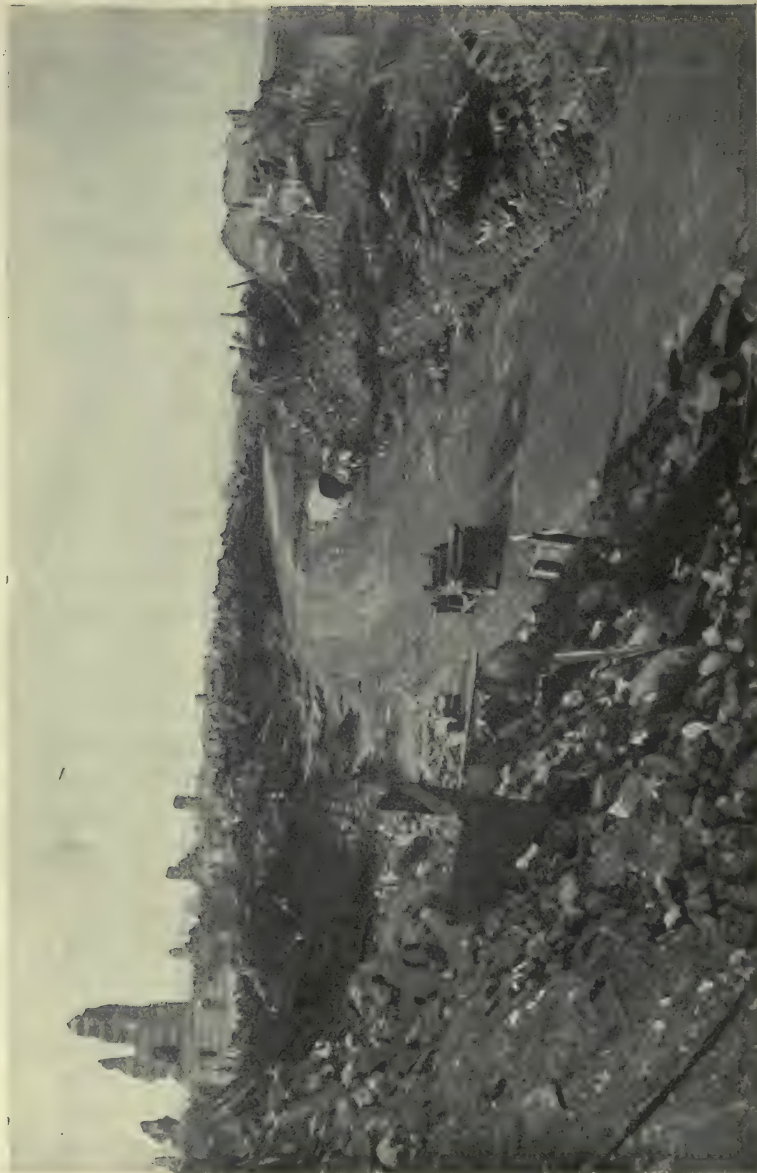


respect as Great Britain, and is obliged to import large quantities of coal. This came from England, Belgium, and Germany before the war, but now Germany is bound by the treaty of 1919 to supply France with large quantities to make up for the destroyed and damaged coal mines in northern France. The most productive coal-fields were in the north-east of the country, and it was there that the greatest manufacturing activity existed. So much injury has been done to the towns, however, that it must be a considerable time before the former manufactures can reach a pre-war footing. The valleys of the Seine, the Loire, and the Rhone are also great industrial districts.

Towns along the Belgian frontier were busy with the manufacture of woollens and linen, and Rouen is the great cotton producing town. Ribbons are made at St Etienne, and Lyons is the chief centre of the silk industry.

Iron ore was manufactured at Lille in northern France; and at Le Creuzot and St Etienne, in the Rhone district, small fire-arms and huge guns are made. Le Creuzot, the rival of Essen in Germany, where the far-famed Krupp guns were manufactured, produced the famous "75's," that served the Allies so well in the late war.

Porcelain is made at Limoges and Sèvres, near Paris. At Sèvres the manufacture is carried on by the government, and most of the articles produced are of exquisite form and beautifully ornamented. It is one of the interesting sights of Paris to visit the porcelain works at Sèvres, and to inspect the works of art both in the process of manufacture and in their finished state.



Lens, a town in the coal-field area, in 1918

Thirteen out of every hundred of the French population are engaged in trade and in transporting passengers and goods from place to place. The roads of France are regarded with just pride, and the railways have increasing traffic. Besides the roads and railways, the waterways of France are an excellent means of communication. Nearly half the mineral fuel is brought into Paris by water, and the usefulness of the rivers has been increased by the formation of canals; these are so extensive that places at great distances apart have been linked up by them. The three great French rivers, the Rhone, Seine, and Loire, are all joined by canals, and the Mediterranean Sea and the Garonne are similarly connected.

All these means of communication do much for the industries of France, and help the hardworking French people in their onward march of prosperity.

## 11. SOME INTERESTING FRENCH TOWNS

We have seen what a beautiful city Paris is, and in this chapter we shall learn about other towns which, if not so beautiful as Paris, possess an interest of their own. People are not found crowded together in big towns in France as they are in England. Only two French towns have a population of more than half a million, while in Britain there are five such towns.

After Paris, Marseilles is the largest city in France and the busiest of all her seaports. It is probably the oldest seaport in the country, and was founded by the Phoenicians more than 2000 years ago. Standing some distance east of the Rhone delta, its fine bay gives it a splendid position for commerce, and it is now the

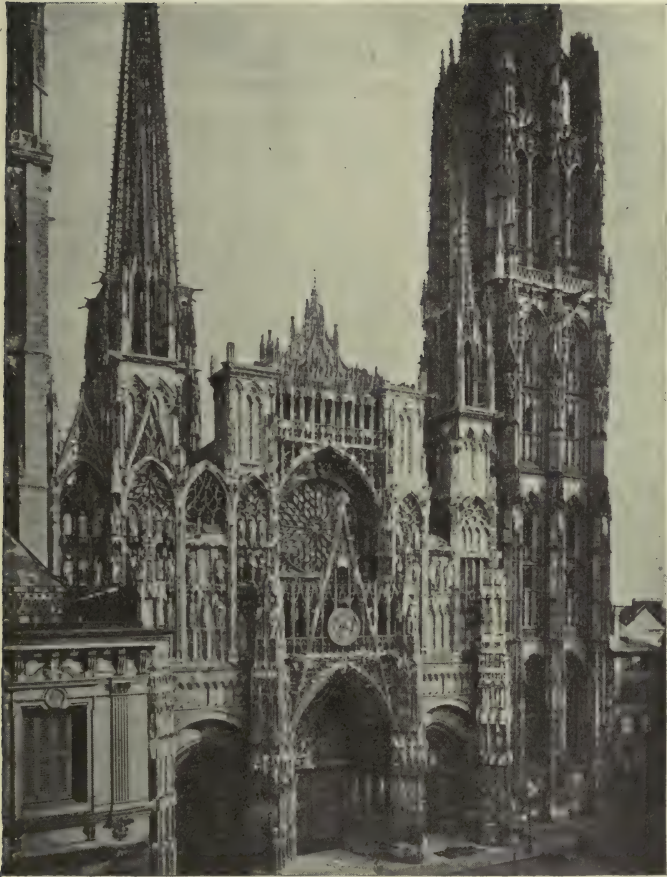
centre of the steamship traffic to the East. British vessels belonging to the Peninsular and Oriental Company call here on their way to India and Australia, and a great line of French steamers starts from Marseilles. The national song of France, the "Marseillaise," takes its name from this city, and was first sung in the streets of Paris during the time of the Revolution. Its quays are of immense size, and sailors of many nations and ships of all kinds may be seen in its harbours and docks.

Less than twenty years ago, the second city in France was Lyons. Now it is the third in size, standing at the fork where the Saône, the great tributary of the Rhone, meets the parent stream. In Lyons we can see how it was that the first builders fixed the position of a town on the ground between the junction of two rivers, for such towns are easily defended. In the case of Lyons the production of raw silk in the district caused the successors of the early builders to see the wisdom of their choice, and to continue its enlargement.

The meeting of the waters of the blue Rhone and the muddy Saône is a well-known sight. For some distance past Lyons, their waters proceed side by side without mixing; the blue band of the Rhone is accompanied by the muddy band of the Saône along the other side of the river. Lyons is a handsome city and is busily engaged in the manufacture of silk, which is famous all over the world.

Bordeaux, the city next in size, is a port of great importance standing at the mouth of the Garonne. It is a prosperous and handsome town, whose quays are thronged with shipping. Many of the vessels are loaded with claret, which is made from the grapes





Rouen Cathedral

grown in the vineyards on the banks of the Garonne. The finest, however, are found in the Medoc district, between Bordeaux and the sea. Some of these vineyards, made familiar by the names of the wines called after them, produce the finest claret in the world.

Normandy has many quaint and beautiful old towns. Rouen is among them, and it stands on the river Seine. Part of the town was built long ago, but part of it is quite modern, and the chimney-stacks of the many cotton mills cause Rouen to be called the "Manchester of France." The glory of the old town is the cathedral, the chief part of which was built in the twelfth century, although each century has seen additions. In one of the streets is the ancient tower in which Joan of Arc was tried in 1431. Afterwards she was burned to death in an open space in the city, and her ashes were cast into the Seine.

Two other Norman towns are interesting to us, as they are connected with the life of William the Conqueror. At the castle of Falaise, standing on a bold headland, this great ruler was born. Falaise is a very pretty place, and the people, who are fond of flowers, deck their gardens, window boxes, and pots with brilliant blossoms. From Falaise a journey across the plain brings us to Caen. In the church of this beautiful city which William himself had built, his body was laid to rest. Caen, like our Oxford, is a city of churches. Bells ringing and clocks chiming constantly remind the visitor of the English University city. Many fine old houses and narrow streets may be found, but the town is, on the whole, modern.

We must not miss Bayeux, for here we shall find the Bayeux tapestry, on which pictures of the invasion and conquest of England are worked in wool, on a piece

of linen 230 feet long. Many incidents are shown, including the one where Harold swore to support William's claim to the English crown, the scene of which was the cathedral of Bayeux itself. This long piece of needlework is preserved in a glass case, and the visitor can see the figures from end to end. The colours are fresh and bright, and in as good condition as they were when the ladies worked them into such interesting pictures, more than eight hundred years ago.

In the south of Brittany the great river Loire empties itself into the Bay of Biscay. Near its mouth is Nantes, which has played an important part in French history; and when Louis XIV took away the privileges of the French Protestants of that town, many of them came to England, and introduced valuable improvements into our industries. The rising port of St Nazaire, nearer the sea, has threatened the prosperity of Nantes; but the enterprise of the people has been great, and they have retained for their city its position as a thriving port.

Up the river is the charming little town of Tours, with gardens and walks along the Loire. It has a fine cathedral and some noble churches. One of these was built to the memory of St Martin, the missionary bishop who converted the Gauls, in the fourth century. On a plain to the south of Tours lies Poitiers, where our Black Prince gained his famous victory in 1356 and made the French king, John, prisoner. Tours is the chief town of the province of Touraine, which is said to be the most characteristically French in all France.

Still farther up the river is Orleans, a fine city well known in English history, for it was here that the "Maid of Orleans" defeated the English in 1429, and forced them to raise the siege.

France is a great naval power, and has its naval ports at Brest on the Brittany coast, Cherbourg on the peninsula of Cotentin opposite Portsmouth, Rochefort on the Bay of Biscay, and Toulon on the Mediterranean. Calais, Dieppe, and Havre are important ferry ports between England and France, through which many travellers



Cambrai, on the morning of the German evacuation, 1918

pass. The towns of Lille, Roubaix, and Cambrai, situated in the north of France, on the Belgian frontiers, were busy hives of industry and the people were engaged in spinning and weaving, occupations that the reconstruction of these devastated towns can only bring back to their former importance.



Away in the south-east corner is the far-famed district of the Riviera, in which are situated the towns of Nice, Cannes, Hyères, Grasse, and many other resorts which wealthy English people visit in the early days of each year, to avoid the inclement weather of England and to enjoy the glories of the early Mediterranean spring.

## 12. BELGIUM AND ITS PEOPLE

A trip of three or four hours by steamer from Dover across the North Sea will bring in sight a long expanse of yellow sand, with sand hills or "dunes" rising behind. This is the first view we shall get of the little country, less than half the size of Ireland, called Belgium. The storms of winter used to play such havoc with the coast and the villages that the people built ramparts of earth to protect them from the ravages of the sea. They still continue this building, but brick and stone are now used for the purpose. These embankments are called *digues*, the finest of which is at Ostend, and it extends for nine miles along the coast. During the day in summer the *digue* of each town is crowded with people, watching the bathers or children making castles on the sands. Bathing goes on all day, and in the evening, when it is dark, lamps are lighted and dancing begins. As the winter approaches the *digues* are deserted, the waves beat against them, and all signs of gaiety cease until the next summer. This was the ordinary life in Ostend; but during the war the enemy's occupation and the bombardments from the British monitors stopped

this peaceable enjoyment. Ostend, however, is now fast regaining its old position as a seaside resort and is restoring what it lost by the ravages of war.

From the sea a wide plain stretches inland, as far as the eye can see. This is the plain of Flanders, which is crossed by canals and long straight roads, paved with stone. There are no hedges to separate the fields, some of



Ostend before the War

which bear crops of wheat, rye, or potatoes, while others provide rich pastures for sheep and cattle. Most of the country people of Flanders work on the land and live very simply. Their food is chiefly black bread, potatoes, and salted meat or fish. The Flemings, however, are very fond of amusement, and a great deal of dancing and singing takes place, especially on holidays.

Travelling was before the war both easy and cheap in Belgium. Before railways were introduced canals were largely used, and in this way it is possible to travel from France, on the south of Belgium, right across the country in a barge. Light railways are now again running in all directions, and a long distance may be easily and cheaply covered. The first railway on the continent of Europe was laid down in Belgium in 1835 and ran from Brussels, the capital, to Malines. The railways belong to the State, and not, as in England, to private companies.

Belgium has more people to the square mile than any other European country. The Belgians are a very industrious people, and, as their country is rich in coal and iron, they are strong competitors with Great Britain in the manufacture of iron and steel. During the war the Germans worked the mines for themselves, and the Belgian industries will take time to regain their former prosperity. The factories and workshops have been pillaged and devastated, but within a year of the end of the war the staple industries had started. Belgian lace is also very noted, and cloth and woollen goods of fine quality are produced. Belgium was famous for its manufactures in the Middle Ages; and long before England took the lead, this country supplied the world with a variety of manufactured goods.

At the outbreak of the Great War Belgium was one of the most prosperous of the European countries. Its agriculture was in advance of that of any other country, because the greatest care and attention was paid to it. The farms are small, and many of them are little more than large market gardens. The spade was used instead of the plough, and so thorough was the cultivation

that much grain was produced, and the Belgians were able to send large quantities abroad. For the present, home needs call for all the energies of this brave people, but with the settlement of the country we may look for a return of her agricultural and manufacturing prosperity.

Belgium has been called "the Cockpit of Europe," because it has been the scene of so many pitched battles. It became, however, a neutral State, by which is meant that, should any of the Great Powers of Europe go to war, the Belgians would not take any part, or be interfered with by them. In 1839 Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia signed a treaty to maintain the neutrality of Belgium. But when the Great War broke out in August 1914 Germany regarded this treaty as "a scrap of paper," and, when refused the request for her armies to be allowed to march through Belgium to attack France, she made war on the country with a savagery that has earned for Germany the condemnation of the civilised world. The Belgians had long been afraid that the time might come when the Great Powers would break their promise to protect their kingdom, and armies might once more march into their country and turn it into a battlefield. For this reason they kept an army of 40,000 soldiers to defend their country till help should come from some powerful nation—in Belgium, as in France, there is a law called the Conscription, by which every man is forced to serve as a soldier. When the great test came, the gallant Belgian army was nobly led by its illustrious King Albert and played its part in saving the cause of liberty.

The name "Netherlands" for a long time was given to the countries of Holland and Belgium, and after the



battle of Waterloo these two states became the kingdom of the Netherlands. But as the Dutch were mostly Protestants and the Belgians were Roman Catholics, disagreements arose, and the Belgians wished to have a kingdom of their own. They wanted the son of the French king to be their sovereign, but this was not allowed by the Great Powers, and in the end the Belgians agreed to ask Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg to be their king. He was crowned at Brussels in 1831, as Leopold I, King of the Belgians. His son Leopold II became king in 1865, and it was only in December 1909 that he died.

### 13. FAMOUS BELGIAN TOWNS

Belgium is a very small country, but it possesses many interesting towns, some of which have suffered great damage at the hands of the Germans. These can be seen without any long railway journeys, for the longest, from Ostend to Liège, takes less than four hours.

Ostend lies in the middle of the Belgian coast, and is the largest seaside town. Crowds of people go there in summer, and thousands may be seen in August bathing at one time.

Very different is Bruges. Its full title is Bruges la Morte, which means "Bruges, the Dead City." It is an ancient city and in times long gone by it was rich and prosperous. In those days Flemish weavers made famous cloth, and Bruges was a great market for wool. Riches flowed into Bruges, and the people spent their money freely in making their city beautiful. Churches

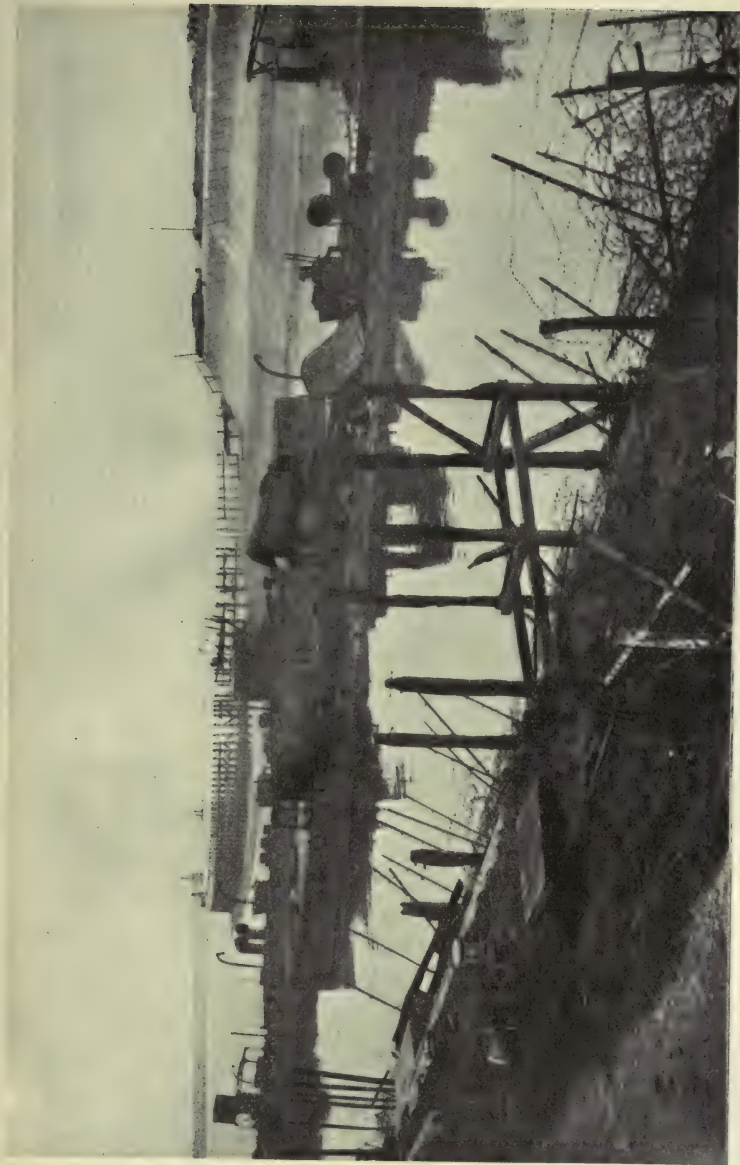
and other fine buildings were erected and art was encouraged.

In the days of its prosperity a channel joined Bruges with the sea, and ships from many countries came to the city; but this channel dried up, and wars and rebellions caused the merchants to leave the city and to settle in Antwerp. In the late war Bruges was the lair of the submarines with which Germany attacked the commerce of the world, by sending them to sea from Zeebrugge by way of the reconstructed Bruges Canal, and in like manner from Ostend.

Bruges has now a desolate appearance, with badly-lighted and ill-kept streets, but the memories of its prosperous days make it very romantic. Artists love to paint its old buildings and quaint scenes, and the visitor can see in Bruges Belgian customs, free from the disturbance of a crowd. Belgian towns are noted for their belfries. From these, in the warlike times of the past, a beacon or a bell used to call the people to arms. The Belfry of Bruges stands in the market-place, and its chimes are the finest in Europe.

Zeebrugge, which has been the storm centre of the German submarine warfare, was founded between 1904 and 1907 to revive the prosperity of Bruges. It has a curved mole or jetty, 8125 feet long, that protects the roadstead. The attack upon the mole and the blocking of the harbour by the Dover Patrol under Sir Roger Keyes in April 1918 was one of the most daring and heroic deeds of the late war.

Only forty minutes away from Bruges by railway is the ancient town of Ghent. Unlike Bruges, Ghent before the war was very much alive and busy. For more than 200 years Ghent remained in a forlorn condition, although



Zeebrugge harbour, blocked by British destroyers

it had been rich owing to its trade in wool with England. After the battle of Waterloo, however, when settled peace came to Belgium, the people of Ghent set to work to bring back prosperity, and now it is full of cotton factories. These, however, have suffered from lack of raw material and the enemy's occupation during the recent war. It has a harbour with a deep canal leading to the river Scheldt, so that many ships can enter the city. Beautiful flowers grown in the nursery gardens and hothouses of Ghent were sent all over the world in large quantities.

Going down the Scheldt from Ghent, we reach Antwerp; it is nearly sixty miles from the sea. Like Bruges and Ghent, it is an ancient town—indeed, all the towns of Belgium are very old. Its fine cathedral contains some famous paintings by the great artist Rubens, who lived in Antwerp for many years. Antwerp is one of the great harbours in the world, and is crowded with ships of all nations. Its position at the head of the river navigation of the Scheldt and its connection by railways and canals with the busiest part of Europe, have given the town its great commercial importance, in the same way that Hamburg on the Elbe, Rotterdam and Amsterdam on branches of the Rhine, London on the Thames, and Liverpool on the Mersey have been favoured.

On leaving Antwerp, an hour's railway ride brings the tourist to Brussels, the capital of Belgium. In the course of the journey the town of Malines or Mechlin is passed. Rising from the middle of the town is the square, massive tower of the cathedral of St Rumbold, now ruined by the German attack. Like Bruges, this was once an important city, but its glory has departed, and wanton destruction was measured out to it when the Germans closed in upon Antwerp in October 1914.



Brussels is the most pleasant city in Belgium. It is bright, clean, and gay, and may once again be noted for these qualities now that the war is over. The large open spaces, wide streets, and beautiful roadways, called boulevards, make it a charming place to live in, and the wealth, fashion, and gaiety of its people have caused it to be called "Little Paris." Close to Brussels is a forest, and the part nearest the city is called the Bois de la Cambre, which is laid out in a similar way to the famous Bois de Boulogne in Paris. This too, like the Paris Bois, is a favourite place for walking and riding. The Hotel de Ville, or Town Hall, is a beautiful building, with its lofty and graceful spire surmounted by a gilded figure of the Archangel Michael.

Ten miles south of Brussels is the famous battlefield of Waterloo, where, on 18 June, 1815, Wellington, with the armies of Britain and Prussia, destroyed the power of Napoleon, and restored peace to Europe. It is not much like a battlefield now. The labourer tills the ground and cattle quietly graze, where men fought and cannon roared in one of the most decisive battles in the world's history. A large mound, with a bronze lion on the top, marks the spot where the conflict took place, and all that remain as reminders of the terrible struggle, are a shell-battered farmhouse and a shot-riddled wall.

There are many other famous towns in Belgium, and of these may be noticed Louvain, with its ancient university. The treatment of this gem of the Belgian towns by the German soldiery called forth the anger and disgust of the civilised world. The university, with its invaluable library, and the church of St Pierre were destroyed as the result of shell-fire and incendiary means systematically

and deliberately carried out by the German soldiers. Liège and Charleroi with their steel and iron works, Mons with its coal mines, and Tournai, where carpets are made, call for more than a passing notice. Liège and Mons,



La Belle Alliance farm, the meeting-place of Wellington and  
Blücher after Waterloo

noted as they have been for their manufactures, will always be associated with the heroic deeds enacted there in the struggle with the Germans. In August 1914 Liège held up the German advance for four invaluable

days. At Mons the British stayed the enemy's progress to Paris by deeds of heroism that will never die.

If Flanders and Brabant alone were visited, it might be supposed that Belgium was entirely flat. In the south of the country, however, the landscape alters. It becomes picturesque as the Meuse is approached. This river flows through a romantic valley, full of quiet villages, gardens, and woods enclosed by steep slopes. A tableland, the Ardennes, clothed with thick forests where deer, wild boars, and other game abound, is the prettiest part of Belgium, where many people in the summer spend their holidays. The valley of the Meuse is famous for the three old towns of Liège, Namur, and Dinant. Dinant, one of the most picturesque towns in the world, was destroyed in August 1914 in the most ruthless fashion, and its inhabitants were treated with the utmost brutality. Liège owns one of the largest big gun factories in the world, and steam engines, steel rails, and other iron goods are made as well. Coal is abundant here, and what was once beautiful has been changed into a "Black Country" full of smoky chimneys and furnaces. But Liège has handsome public buildings, and its noble and well cleaned streets make it one of Europe's interesting cities.

#### 14. HOLLAND AND DUTCH INDUSTRIES

It has been explained that the Netherlands at one time included both Holland and Belgium. Now, however, the term Netherlands is only another name for Holland. Holland was once under the sea. The Rhine and the

Meuse carried down great quantities of sand, gravel, and earth, until at length they filled up the sea, and formed what is called a delta. Thus both Holland and Belgium are largely formed out of the Alps and the soil from the German plain.

Land like this is at first nothing more than a morass, and it is due to the unceasing labour and great courage of the people who came to live here that this dreary land has been converted into one of the most fertile and prosperous parts of Europe.

This has been brought about by draining the land. Embankments were built round vast tracts, and then the water was pumped into canals by windmills. A distinguishing feature of a Dutch landscape is the network of canals. The embankments or dykes were made by driving piles of wood into the ground, and by filling up the spaces between with clay and stone. The stone was brought from Scandinavia, for there is none in Holland. Lands thus rescued for cultivation are called "polders." From these the water that falls as rain does not run off, and so windmills are still constantly at work pumping, to keep the land dry. The largest polder was at one time a lake, called Haarlem Meer, 70 square miles in area; and the Dutch hope, at some time, to rescue the great Zuyder Zee in the same way.

The coasts, too, are very low, and are protected by dykes 30 feet high and from two to three hundred feet thick. Sometimes the sea breaks through the dykes and causes great destruction. In the thirteenth century a number of such inroads occurred, and the Zuyder Zee, the largest bay round the coast, was formed. On this occasion thousands of lives were lost and hundreds of villages were destroyed.



Along the whole length of the coast the winds have piled up a belt of sand hills, or dunes, which also help to protect the coast from the inroads of the sea. Grasses with long twining roots have been planted to hold the sands together. These and the dykes are carefully looked after, for upon them the safety of the lives and the wealth of the Dutch depend. For centuries the people have had to exercise this care and watchfulness, and this has made them a patient, brave, and industrious nation.

Holland is a country that seems strange to an Englishman. It is very flat; few trees are to be seen, but the fields are covered with rich crops of grass, with herds of black-and-white cattle feeding in them. The bright green fields are cut up, like a chess board, by the canals; and the red-roofed houses, the outsides of which are painted blue or green and the window frames yellow, give some relief to the otherwise monotonous appearance of the landscape.

The Dutch peasant dresses in a very quaint garb. His short, close-fitting jacket reaches only a little below his shoulders, and his trousers, made of velveteen, are very wide and baggy round the body. He is shod in clumsy wooden shoes, or sabots, as they are called, in which he walks quite easily. These sabots may be seen outside the houses, and hundreds of pairs outside the village churches and public houses, for everyone takes them off before entering the building.

An English woman likes to be slim and elegant, but the Dutch peasant woman tries to look as stout as possible, for the more petticoats she wears, the more she is admired, and the richer she is considered to be.

In winter, when the canals are frozen, everyone takes to skates. The children skate to school, the women skate to market with their baskets on their heads, and people skate to church. The skates are long and straight, and turned up at the toes. Everyone is familiar with the speed that can be attained on "Dutch runners," as these skates are called.

Holland is an agricultural country. Gardening is quite a passion with the Dutch. Tulips are their favourite flowers, and the quality of "Dutch bulbs" is well known. At Haarlem, an old town near Amsterdam, live the greatest growers of tulips in the world. The hyacinth, the narcissus, and the daffodil are also largely grown, and from Haarlem the bulbs are sent all over the world. In recent years the extensive growing of bulbs has been introduced into England on the land round the Wash, which has similar conditions to those of Holland on the other side of the North Sea.

Cheese-making is one of the chief industries of Holland, and takes place mainly in the north, where the farms are large and the pasturage is rich. Dutch houses are scrupulously clean, for the dampness of the climate renders constant scrubbing and scouring necessary. These cleanly habits of the people are specially displayed in the making of their cheeses. When the curd is ready, it is placed in moulds and left in the cheese press for fifteen hours.

The cheese press is worked by hand, for the Dutch farmer despises all modern inventions and continues to use the press of his fathers. Salting of the cheese then follows, and after some days it is rubbed with melted butter to prevent it from cracking. It is then washed in vinegar, and, after a period for ripening, its colour is

improved by linseed oil. After this the cheeses are piled in a boat or dog-cart and taken to market. The rivers and canals are still much used, although railways have been introduced, and the dog-cart is a real one, for the carts are actually drawn by dogs.

The climate of Holland is not good, but the soil is fertile, and the cultivation of rye, potatoes, beet, flax, and wheat is carried on by the industrious Dutch farmer, while the fishermen, on the Dogger Bank, are busily engaged in obtaining cod and herring.

If the people of Holland have had endless labour to make their country out of the sea, they had quite as much trouble to retain it for themselves. In the Middle Ages it was divided into many small states. In course of time they, with those of Belgium, came under the control of the Duke of Burgundy. The last Duke of Burgundy's daughter, Mary, married the Austrian ruler, and the Netherlands passed into the hands of the Austrian or Hapsburg family, when Charles V, who ruled Germany and Spain, also ruled the Netherlands.

Philip II, his son, began to persecute his subjects in the Netherlands, but when Elizabeth was Queen of England she helped the Dutch, as the people of Holland were Protestants. This was one of the reasons that caused Philip to send his Armada to England with the hope of conquering it and landing an army from the Netherlands in this country.

After a long struggle the northern provinces of the Netherlands gained their independence, and under the leadership of the great Prince of Orange, William the Silent, they formed themselves into a Union of free states.

The Roman Catholic states of Belgium remained under Spanish authority, but the northern part, or Holland, was lost to Spanish rule. Holland at this time made great progress, and sent ships to trade with America and with the Indies. Her cities of Amsterdam and Rotterdam grew rich, whereas the Belgian cities of Bruges and Ghent decayed. When Charles II was king of England, many battles were fought by the English and Dutch fleets, but at last the two nations made peace.

William of Orange, the ruler of Holland, was invited to England, and became King William III, when the people grew tired of James II's efforts to make England a Roman Catholic country. William, king of the Protestant countries of England and Holland, made war on Louis XIV, the Roman Catholic king of France.

Belgium and Holland were made part of France by Napoleon I, but at a Congress held at Vienna the two were formed into a separate kingdom of the Netherlands. Belgians and Dutch, however, could not agree, and in 1831 each country became a separate kingdom, with a ruler of its own.

Bold sailors and enterprising traders, the Dutch were for a long time the rivals of England. Although their navy is now unimportant, yet as traders they still hold an important place, and, in proportion to the number of people in Holland, the exports are more than those of any other continental nation, owing largely to the Rhine trade.



## 15. DUTCH TOWNS

The capital of the kingdom of Holland is the Hague. It is the third city in size, and has a population not quite as large as that of Newcastle. The Hague is the seat of the government and the residence of Queen Wilhelmina. Situated about a couple of miles from the North Sea, it is a very handsome city, with fine



Amsterdam

buildings, and its canals are bordered with lime trees. The museum is noted for its art collection, and the old castle is where the Parliament meets. Five miles from the Hague is the popular seaside resort, Scheveningen, which is crowded with visitors during the summer time.

Amsterdam is the largest city of Holland, and is about the size of Birmingham. It stands at the mouth of the Amstel, on the Y, an inlet of the Zuyder Zee. The houses are built on piles driven fifty or sixty feet through the soft peat and sand into firm soil.

Canals run everywhere in Amsterdam, and its ninety islands are connected by three hundred bridges. Ships and carriages may be seen in the same street, and church towers, tall chimneys, and trees seem mixed up together in a way both strange and bewildering.

At one time Amsterdam was unhealthy, owing to the marshy condition of the soil and to its bad water. Both of these defects have now been remedied, by draining the land and by bringing good water into the city. The houses show much variety in architecture, and the better-class dwellings are very attractive. Many of the streets, bordering upon the canals, are paved with little red bricks, and each householder keeps his own bit of frontage as clean and fresh as the floor of a dairy. Amsterdam has many industries, but the most noted is that of diamond-cutting and polishing. The Jews, who number 100,000, are specially gifted in this art, and carry on the work with great success.

Rotterdam is now the chief port of Holland, and stands about twenty miles from the mouth of the Maas. Like Amsterdam, it is a network of canals, and ships come right into the heart of the town, where they load and unload at its wharves. Rotterdam trades largely in colonial produce, such as coffee, sugar, rice, tobacco, and spices. The people of Rotterdam are constantly improving their harbour, and the entrance to it. It trades with every part of the world, and lines of steamers run regularly to the great ports of northern and western

Europe, as well as to New York and the East Indies; and besides, it is the outlet for the Rhine trade.

The city of Utrecht comes next to the Hague in point of size. It is twenty-three miles from Amsterdam and thirty-eight from Rotterdam. In the year 1830 its walls were levelled and formed into promenades. It has a university with several hundred students and possesses a library of 100,000 books. This city is a manufacturing centre as well as the seat of a university, and among the articles produced are tobacco and cigars, woollen goods and carpets, as well as furniture and chemicals. In 1713 the famous treaty of Utrecht was signed here, which brought to an end the war of the Spanish Succession.

The town of Haarlem, situated ten miles to the west of Amsterdam is, like most Dutch towns, intersected by canals. Although Haarlem is no longer so celebrated for its trade as it was in the seventeenth century, yet its nursery gardens produce flowers in such numbers that great quantities of bulbs are exported.

Leyden is another old town of Holland on the Old Rhine, five miles from the North Sea. Both Haarlem and Leyden took a prominent place in fighting against the Spaniards in 1573. In this year Haarlem was besieged and was obliged to surrender. Leyden suffered two sieges. On the first occasion the siege was raised by Prince Louis of Nassau, brother of William of Orange, but the Spaniards closed round the town again. The people fought bravely and endured terrible hardships, but nothing seemed to avail. At last the dykes were broken down, and the country was flooded. William of Orange then advanced with food-laden ships and relieved the town. The Spaniards were then forced to

retire. To reward the citizens for their bravery in this twelve months' siege, William offered them the choice of a university or freedom from taxes. They chose the university, and, for many years it was one of the most famous in Europe. Prince Rupert, Boswell, the friend and biographer of Johnson, and Oliver Goldsmith were students here. At Leyden, too, Holland's greatest painter Rembrandt was born. After studying the art of painting at Amsterdam, he returned to Leyden, where he painted and gave lessons for seven years. He then returned to Amsterdam and painted many of his most noted pictures. In the National Gallery in London there are two portraits of himself, as well as a wonderful picture of an old woman, and several others; but in Leyden itself there is not a single example of this great man's work.

In the fifteenth century Leyden was famous all over Europe for its manufactures of cloth, baize, and cambric. These are not so important now, but a large trade in butter and cheese, as well as the manufacture of woollens and linen and the dyeing of cloth and leather, is carried on. Between Haarlem and Leyden lies the great polder, a monument of Dutch perseverance and industry. The cost of this undertaking was more than £1,000,000, but the land thus rescued has sold for three-quarters of this sum.

## 16. DENMARK AND THE DANES

Opposite the Firth of Tay in Scotland, across the North Sea, lies Denmark, one of the smallest and most thinly peopled countries of Europe. It consists of the peninsula of Jutland and several islands lying to the



south-east of it, at the entrance to the Baltic Sea. On the North Sea shore the peninsula is low, with sandy beaches and dunes; but the eastern coast is bold, and broken by many inlets or fjords. The largest of these is the Liim Fjord, which runs through the narrow isthmus and makes the northern part of the peninsula into an island, the extremity of which ends in a long, narrow spit of sand called the Skaw.

The climate of Denmark is moist and subject to fogs, while clouds of sand are blown over the land by the strong westerly winds. The country is well wooded in parts, and the fine beech woods of southern Denmark add greatly to its beauty. The western part of Jutland is too sandy for successful cultivation, but cattle, horses, and sheep are reared, and by careful attention the land has been made productive. The islands are more fertile than the peninsula, and corn-growing is carried on. Cattle-rearing and dairy-farming are among the chief industries of the people, and the land is well tilled. Nowhere are better dairy-farms to be found than in Denmark, and more corn is grown, in proportion to the number of the people, than in any country in Europe. Modern methods are employed, and the farmers co-operate, or work well together. Instead of each farmer making his own butter, he sends his milk to a butter factory, where it is mixed with that from other farms, and the butter is made from the mixture. This "factory" butter is of uniform quality, and so it fetches a good price and commands a ready sale. Much of this came to England before the war, and, with the eggs and bacon, the sales reached some millions of pounds in value every year.

There are no mountains in Denmark, and the greatest

elevation is not more than 600 feet, while the rivers are short and of little importance. Hence, although Denmark is one of the Scandinavian countries, pines and firs will not grow without very careful cultivation. The chief tree in Denmark is the beech, which grows better here than anywhere else in the world. As there are no minerals of any importance, Denmark has few manufactures. Gloves, brandy, and a fine porcelain, made from the rich clay found in the country, are the most important. Peat is used for fuel and coal has to be imported.

The Danes are good sailors, and fishing, which is carried on around the coast, is the main industry in the far-off Farøe Islands in the Atlantic belonging to Denmark.

Of the islands lying at the entrance to the Baltic Sea, Zealand is the largest, and is separated from Sweden by the Sound, a channel providing a safe entrance for ships to the Baltic. Copenhagen, the capital and the only large town in Denmark, stands at the southern end of the Sound, on the island of Zealand, and the smaller town of Armager is close by. Copenhagen is a fine city, the approach to which from the north, is very delightful. In summer the Sound has hundreds of steamers passing to and fro between the North and Baltic Seas. In olden times, ships had to pay a toll to Denmark for using the Sound. This was discontinued at the request of the different nations, who combined to pay a large sum of money to Denmark for making the navigation free.

From Kronborg castle in Elsinore, overlooking the northern entrance of the Sound, a salute was fired to indicate to vessels that a toll was demanded. Elsinore



Copenhagen

is well known to English and Americans as being the supposed burial place of Hamlet, Prince of Denmark, the hero of Shakespeare's immortal play.

As we pass up the Sound, the beautiful beech woods of Denmark, and the pretty fishing villages, with many towers and pinnacles and the great golden dome of the marble church, are seen.

Copenhagen in Danish means "Merchants' Haven," and as early as the eleventh century foreign merchants came here for the rich supply of herrings obtained by Danish fishermen in the Baltic. The newness of the city is due to the fact that fires and bombardments have rendered it necessary to make good the damage done on more than one occasion by these misfortunes. The copper and bronze roofs of many of the buildings, the tiles of the houses arranged like fish-scales, the many squares and public gardens unite to give a great charm to Copenhagen. But it is the light hearts and kindly ways of the people that perhaps impress the visitor most. While the Dane is eating, he must have music, and, like his food, it must be good, so that the café and restaurant life of this pleasant capital is one of the fascinations of Copenhagen.

One Dane at least is known to most English boys and girls. Hans Christian Andersen, whose fairy tales are so well known and loved by all, was born at Odense, the capital of the island of Funen. Although his *Fairy Tales* are best known, yet his writings include novels, dramas, and poems. In the children's garden of the King's Park, Copenhagen, a beautiful bronze monument is erected to his memory.

English people are naturally interested in Denmark, because from this land came some of the early



settlers to our country. They dwelt in the eastern part of Britain, and the names of many of our towns and villages remind us that long ago they were founded and inhabited by the Danes. We know little of the early history of Denmark, which is lost in legend and fairy tale lore, but in the latter part of the ninth century Gome the Old was the king. At the end of the fourteenth century Norway, Sweden, and Denmark were united under one king, but in the sixteenth century the Swedes separated from Denmark. In the Napoleonic wars Denmark sided with the French, and the British fleet, under Sir Hyde Parker and Lord Nelson, bombarded the city of Copenhagen, and defeated the Danes in the battle of the Baltic. At the end of the war in 1815 Norway was joined to Sweden. The two provinces of Denmark, Sleswig and Holstein, which were chiefly German, passed into the hands of Prussia in 1864. By the Treaty of Versailles Mid-Sleswig will in future be included in Denmark, as the inhabitants decided in 1919 by vote. Small as Denmark is to-day, the country has prospered, and in recent times it has increased both in wealth and population. Of late years a bond of union has been formed between the kingdom of Denmark and our own country from the fact that King Edward VII's queen, Alexandra, was a Danish princess and was born in Copenhagen.

In addition to the islands around the Danish coasts, the King of Denmark formerly ruled over Iceland, part of which extends into the Arctic Circle. It is an island of strange physical features, where the water of the hot springs, called geysers, is shot up into the air a hundred feet, and that of the greatest of them all, the Great Geyser, to more than twice that height.

The Icelanders live on the coast and in the lowland valleys of this volcanic region. Here the men engage in fishing and the women knit stockings, while the love of learning has given them a keen zest for education. Their old songs, or sagas, which their Norse forefathers sang of the heroes in this strange region, are still read with pleasure by the people.



Bernstoff Palace, Copenhagen, the birthplace of Queen Alexandra

## 17. NORWAY

Most people have heard of the Vikings, who, in the days of long ago, were the dread of northern Europe. These Norsemen conquered large parts of England, Ireland, and France, and Viking blood flowed in the veins of many of the ancestors of the modern Englishman.

They came across the North Sea from their country of Norway, which, with Sweden, forms the peninsula of Scandinavia. It is the largest and longest peninsula in Europe, and measures, from north to south, about 1100 miles. Scandinavia is about three times the size of Great Britain, and it extends beyond the Arctic Circle in the north to a point almost level with Berwick-on-Tweed in the south.

A great part of Norway is a tableland, lying between the great central range of mountains and the sea. This plateau is very narrow in the north, but it broadens out in the south, where the country loses its mountainous character and becomes flat. The chief mountains are the Hardangerfield in the south, Dovrefield in the centre, and the Kiölen mountains in the north. The last are so called because they have the appearance of the keel of an upturned boat. The mountains are the highest just to the south of the Dovrefield, and here they reach a height of over 8000 feet. The largest snowfield in Europe is found here, and from it flows the largest European glacier, which is nearly 400 square miles in extent.

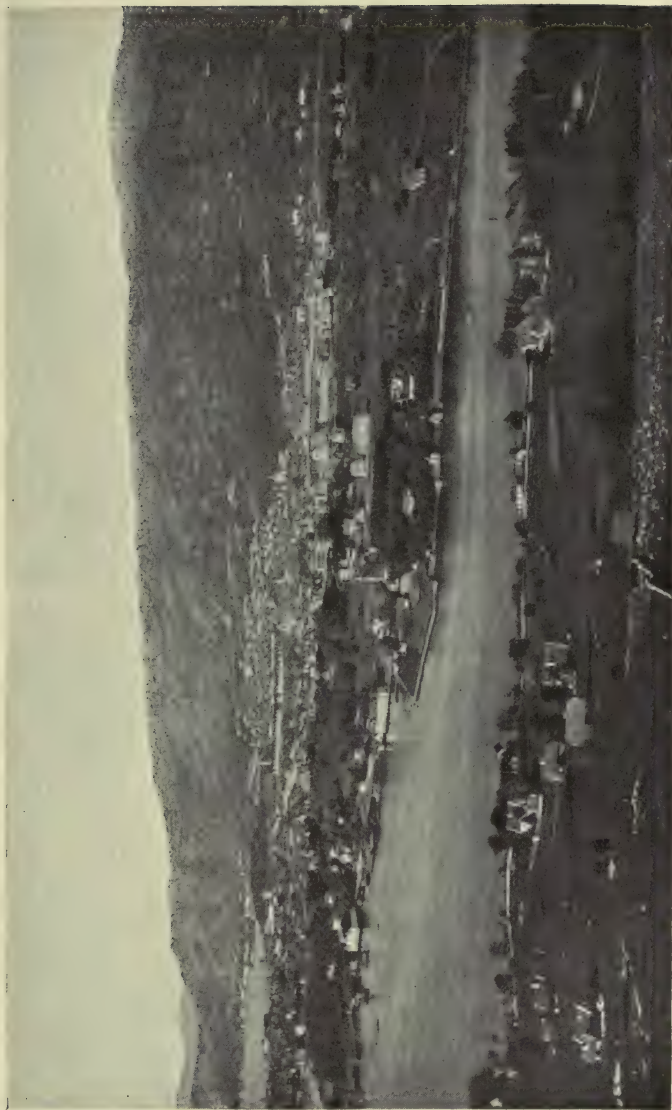
The shores of Norway are washed by the Arctic Ocean on the north, the Atlantic on the west, and an arm of the North Sea, the Skager Rak, bathes its southern coast. The coast is broken up into deep inlets called fjords, which run far into the land between high rocky shores. Over the steep sides of the mountains and high cliffs bordering the fjords, in many places falling torrents are seen, and glaciers advance close to the sea. The water in the fjords is so clear that the bottom may be seen at a depth of a hundred feet. The scenery of this region is very fine, and in the

summer visitors from foreign countries come to see the grandeur of this romantic coast. Some of the fjords run into the heart of the country, the longest of which is the Sogne Fjord, and of the many others, the best known are the Trondhjem and Hardanger Fjords. The "Smiling Hardanger," as the Norwegians call it, presents all that is grand and beautiful, and is an excellent example of Norwegian scenery. The easiest way to reach it is from Bergen, which, with its old wooden houses around its harbour crowded with shipping, and with bold mountains rising up from the town, is indeed a lovely place. But the visitor must be prepared for rain, for at Bergen it rains almost every day. The fjords are free from ice both in winter and summer, and the climate of Norway is, like that of Great Britain, very much milder than the climate of places at the same distance from the equator in Asia and America.

The rivers of Norway are short and very swift and of little use for commerce, but most of them can be used for floating down timber and turning mill wheels, and now electricity has been created by the falling torrents for driving machinery. No rivers in the world, however, are more beautiful, and the waterfalls and rapids excel even those found in the Alps. The Glommen, the longest river in the country, which flows into the Skager Rak, has twenty such waterfalls in its course.

A great deal of the land in Norway is unsuitable for cultivation, but, in spite of this, farming is an important industry. A larger part of the people are engaged in pursuits connected with the sea than in any other country in Europe, except Great Britain. Of these occupations on the sea, fishing is the most





Bergen

important. The great fisheries are round the Lofoten Islands on the north-west coast, where 30,000 men and thousands of boats are engaged in catching cod, which are sent to Britain and Spain in large quantities. Perhaps the cod's liver and roe are of more value than the fish itself, and there are large factories for making cod-liver oil both at the Lofotens and also at other places along the coast. In many other parts fishing is the chief industry, and hundreds of thousands of barrels of herrings and sprats are sent out of the country every year, while sardines and anchovies are tinned in factories at Stavanger and other seaports.

The Norwegians are great fish-eaters themselves, and the fish market at Bergen is a most interesting sight. Cheese, too, is largely eaten in Norway, and it is not an uncommon sight to see several kinds on a Norwegian breakfast table.

Important as the fishing industry is, the timber trade is more important. Almost a quarter of the country is covered with forests that are of great value. Much of the timber is used in the country, as most of the houses and bridges are built of wood; but there is plenty left for export to foreign countries. The ring of the woodman's axe is heard high up among the forest-clad mountains, and the bare trunks may be seen floating down the rivers on their way to the coast. Home industries, however, have sprung up in connection with the timber trade. Among these are the manufacture of matches and wood-pulp. The wood-pulp industry is of recent growth, and it is interesting to visit the pulp works of Hønefos, near Christiania. At Hønefos trees which go into these works come out as paper.

Many other occupations engage this industrious,

brave, and freedom-loving people. Trade is carried on in skins and furs, in condensed milk, butter, and margarine, as well as in certain minerals. Willing hands find plenty of work to do; and although the Norwegian winter makes it necessary for the struggling countryman to provide for this season in the summer, his labours are rewarded, and real poverty scarcely exists.

It is not all work, however, for in the long winter the Norwegian delights to move about on his *ski*, or snow skates. These are strips of light thin wood about six feet long and about as broad as a boot. They curve up at each end, and on these, fastened to the feet with loops of leather, the Norwegian skims swiftly across the snow.

Norway is not a country of large towns. Christiania, a town about the size of Hull, is the capital. It stands on a fjord of the same name, from which a beautiful valley opens up into the country beyond. Christiania is a well-built and thriving city, with wide streets regularly laid out, and possessing some handsome buildings. Many of the houses are built of wood and painted white, with green blinds. The harbour is visited by many trading ships engaged in foreign and coasting trade, and the fish market, early in the morning, is an animated scene.

At one time Norway was under the same ruler as Denmark, but in 1814 Sweden and Norway were made one kingdom with separate parliaments. The two countries did not work well together, and in 1905 the Norwegians decided to separate from Sweden. Prince Charles of Denmark, the son-in-law of King Edward VII, was chosen by the Norwegians to be their king. Many famous Norse kings had ruled before him, and in honour of these the Prince chose the title of King Haakon VII.

## 18. SWEDEN, ITS LAKES AND FORESTS

Sweden, the eastern part of Scandinavia, descends from the great ridge of the central heights in a series of terraces to the shores of the Baltic and its huge inlet, the Gulf of Bothnia. Between the mountains and the sea is a much wider tract of land than there is in Norway between their western sides and the Atlantic. The rivers are much longer, and many of them broaden out into lakes on their way to the sea. Lakes, indeed, are quite a feature of Sweden. The largest are in the south, and they stretch across the country from the Kattegat to the Baltic. Lakes Wener and Wetter are situated here and are now joined by a canal. Lake Wener, the larger, is a hundred and fifty miles long and fifty miles broad, and is traversed by steamers which in crossing are often out of sight of land. Another great lake is that of Mälär, which is so close to the sea, and so near the sea-level, that the waters of the Baltic sometimes flow into it.

Unlike the coast of Norway, that of Sweden is low, but much of it is fringed with shoals and reefs, which are called by the Swedes the "Skerry Guard."

The surface of Sweden is less broken and rugged than that of Norway, and its soil is more fertile. Farming forms an important industry, and in the south potatoes, oats, rye, barley, and wheat are cultivated. But there is not sufficient corn grown for the needs of the people, and rye is exported, both in Norway and Sweden. From Sweden, butter is exported chiefly to England, and this is rendered possible by the careful attention paid to dairy-farming. Schools have been



formed for teaching the people how to make good butter cheaply, and a number of farms work together, so as to save expense and at the same time to produce a good quality of butter.

Sweden is a land of forests, and more than half of its surface is covered with trees. The forest region lies



Swedish peasants at market

west of the great Gulf of Bothnia, where the lumbermen are engaged in the timber trade. Here the many streams are used to float the timber down to the ports, and to drive the saw mills and electric motors. Large quantities of timber are sent to England, and the term "deal," so common among those using timber, is but a Scandinavian word meaning a *piece* or

*plank.* As in Norway, much timber is used for making wood-pulp, which is manufactured into paper.

Sweden is also an important mining country, the chief minerals being copper and iron. Copper is mined at Falun on the river Dal, and iron of excellent quality is obtained from Dannemora, where every year a small quantity is smelted by means of charcoal. Most of the iron, however, is sent to Sheffield, where it is used for making the best cutlery, for the steel made from Swedish iron is perhaps of the finest quality in the world, being specially suitable for tools requiring great strength and a keen edge.

Travelling in Sweden is easy, for the roads are excellent, and many natural waterways have been connected by canals, so as form a network of navigable waters in all directions. From the Baltic a canal runs to Lake Wetter, and then on to Lake Wener, from which ships go down the river Göta to the Kattegat. The Swedes have thus a waterway of their own from the Baltic to the North Sea, without being obliged to use the Sound.

The canal starts at Norrköping, an important industrial town, and, running westward from the Baltic, passes through fields and forests on its way to Lake Wetter. In the course of the second canal, connecting Lake Wetter with Lake Wener, numerous locks occur, to enable vessels to pass from one level to another. Passing through locks is always a tedious business, and most travellers by this canal leave the vessel and go to visit the Trollhätta Falls, where the waters of Lake Wener rush down to the river Göta. The noise of the foaming waters, dashing down the seven steps of the fall, is deafening, and it may be easily understood why

these falls have been called Trollhätta, a name which means "the home of the water witches."

Sweden has not many large towns. Stockholm, the capital, however, is one of the most beautifully situated capitals in Europe. It is built on a number of small islands at the entrance to Lake Mälär, 40 miles from the Baltic



Stockholm

Sea. Stockholm is approached through winding channels, amidst wooded islands, with red-roofed towns and villages nestling among the trees. The numerous channels passing through the city remind the visitor of Venice, but the hills, crags, and wooded heights give Stockholm the advantage over the Italian city. The oldest part of Stockholm is built on an island in the

middle and is called "The Town." The royal palace and the chief church stand here; and there is also a fine wharf, but the usefulness of this is limited to summer, for in the winter the channels are blocked with ice. On another island are the museum, the observatory, and a statue of Linnaeus, the famous Swedish botanist. Numerous bridges connect various parts of the city, and steamboats ply in all directions. It is the centre of the foreign trade of Sweden, and large quantities of timber and iron ore are sent here for exportation. Winter is a gay time, for when the rivers and lakes are frozen they are alive with sledges, carrying the people in all directions.

The second largest town of Sweden is Göteborg, standing on the Kattegat, at the mouth of the Göta. Although founded by Gustavus Adolphus as long ago as 1618, yet, owing to the numerous fires, it is quite a modern town. It is regularly built, with clean streets, and many bridges crossing its canals, and it has an excellent harbour, seldom blocked with ice. Göteborg is an industrial town, and ship-building, iron-working, sugar-refining, and the brewing of porter provide occupations for its inhabitants.

Upsala is a great historical centre in Sweden. The town, situated 40 miles north-west of Stockholm, is the seat of the only archbishop of Sweden, and contains the principal university. Here Linnaeus the botanist, Gustavus Vasa and other kings of Sweden were buried; and four miles distant are the Mora Stones, on which the old kings of Sweden used to take the oath of good government.

Both the Norwegians and the Swedes are tall, with fair hair and blue eyes. They are the tallest people in



Europe, and their ancestors were the celebrated Vikings of ancient times. While the Norsemen of Norway and Denmark turned their attention to conquest along the shores of the North Sea, the Swedes extended their power towards Russia. Under the famous kings Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII, Sweden took an important position in European affairs and exerted her authority beyond the northern shores of the Baltic. At one time Sweden held Finland and conquered the lands around the Gulf of Finland, and most of that round the Gulf of Riga. But Peter the Great of Russia was too strong for Charles XII, and he took these lands from Sweden.

The wars of Napoleon were disastrous to Sweden, and she lost both her German possessions and Finland, which became Russian. Norway and Sweden then became one kingdom, but, as we have seen, the two countries were not really united, and so in 1905 they separated, each being now ruled by a king of its own.

## 19. LIFE ON THE TUNDRAS

Stretching away from the Arctic Ocean, both in the Old and New Worlds, is a region that passes from fields of unbroken ice and snow to a belt of scanty vegetation, followed by sparse woods, and ends in the forest regions of temperate lands. In Russia the name "tundra" is given to this frozen desert, while in Canada the nature of the country is well described by the name "Barren Lands."

The European portion of this frozen desert is named Lapland, and it includes the regions of the north of

Norway, Sweden, and Russia. In winter it lies beneath a sheet of snow, but with the late spring it awakens to a life of great intensity. The summer sun melts the snow-covered surface, but a foot or two beneath the surface the ground is always frozen. Here berry-bearing bushes, such as the cranberry and whortleberry, grow abundantly, half hidden by the moss, which is the chief vegetation of the tundra.



Midnight sun at the North Cape, Norway

There are but two seasons in this region, the long dreary winter and the short brilliant summer. Then gorgeous flowers spring into life, thousands of mosquitoes fill the air, and numerous birds appear. For some days on either side of midsummer day the sun never sinks below the horizon, and thus there occurs in the extreme north what is known as "the Midnight Sun." During

the long winter, which occupies two-thirds of the year, no sign of life is to be seen, except, perhaps, the footprints of the fox or reindeer on the snow, which covers up the scanty vegetation.

This is the land of the Lapps and Finns, who spend their lives in company with their herds of reindeer, within the Arctic Circle. The reindeer is indifferent to cold, and can pass swiftly but surely over glacier, morass, or boulder. Reindeer-moss forms its food, and this it can obtain by digging with its fore feet in the snow. The people of the tundra have tamed this wonderful animal; and as the reindeer herd wanders from one feeding-ground to another, so they follow, for food for the reindeer is of first importance.

Life has few changes for the Laplander. Agriculture is quite impossible, and the few summer berries make a welcome variety to the ordinary food. Then, too, for about three months, fishing calls for attention. For it is then that this interesting people provide for the winter store, as well as for the summer meal. On the southern edge of the tundra bordering on the forest region, the hunting of furred animals in winter takes place.

It is hard to realise what the reindeer is to the Laplanders. By its aid they can move from place to place, and when dead no part of the carcase is useless. The flesh is used for food, the skins provide shelter and clothing, and the horns and bones are used as implements in the family life. The possessor of a herd of reindeer is considered to be a rich man, while to be without, and to depend on fishing, is to be poor.

Life in Lapland is nomadic, that is, the people wander from place to place, and the reindeer guides this

movement in search for food. In winter there is less wandering, and shelter is sought on the forested edge of the tundra. While the men are out hunting, the women remain with the children in their tents, look after the reindeer, and prepare furs for clothing and tent coverings. In summer there is a constant change of abode, and even in winter the lack of food for the reindeer necessitates a move to fresh feeding-grounds from time to time. The dwellings of these nomadic peoples are tents, easily struck and as easily set up. Their possessions are scanty and consist of a few necessary weapons, tools, and utensils.

In summer the dwelling is very like a gipsy tent, and consists of a framework of poles covered with bark or skins, with a hole in the top to let out the smoke. These tents are not tidy and are generally littered about with rubbish. When near a forest region, the people do not trouble to carry away the poles of the tent as they move on. In winter, perhaps, a longer stay in one place is anticipated, and a more permanent form of shelter is made. The food of the tundra people is almost wholly composed of the flesh of animals, and hunger makes them not very particular about the condition of this when eaten. The flesh is often raw and sometimes decomposed, and what we should find impossible to eat as food they enjoy very much. Reindeer milk is obtained in small quantities, but this is taken in a diluted form, as the milk itself is very thick.

The Lapps manage to obtain coffee, and tobacco is highly prized. This is smoked in native pipes which are often beautifully ornamented.

The clothing of the Laplander is composed mostly of skins, sewn together with the sinews of the reindeer. Very little difference is to be observed between the



dress of the men and women. The hands and feet must be well protected, owing to the cold, and mittens or fur gloves cover the hands and fur boots protect the feet.

Sledges are found everywhere, and are drawn by dogs or reindeer. The Lapps use ski, or snow-shoes,



A Lapp encampment, Norway

made of fir wood, some twelve or fifteen feet long and four or five inches wide. On these a good pace can be made. Over good snow the Lapp can travel fourteen or fifteen miles an hour. Their weapons consist of bows and arrows, but the use of fire-arms is spreading.

Babies are carried in their mothers' hoods or in

cradles on their mothers' backs. The children are well treated, but the aged and sick and the weakly children are often left behind to perish. This is generally the case among peoples whose existence is precarious, and where only the hardy and those who can help themselves are considered of service to the community.

In this land the "Northern Lights" flash across the winter sky and help to cheer the long night of two months when not a glimpse of the sun is seen. If the people of Scandinavia are the tallest in Europe, the Lapps are the shortest, for a man five feet in height in Lapland is considered tall. Size, however, is not everything, for the Lapp is strong and hardy. His wants are few, and his herd of reindeer supplies almost all his needs.

## 20. GERMANY

The name Germany has been for many years so frequently used that it is well to understand what was meant by the term. There was really no single country of Germany, in the same sense as there is one of France or Spain. Although we spoke of Germany, it was more correct to speak of the German Empire. This consisted of twenty-six states, which formed themselves into an empire after the victorious German army had entered Paris in the Franco-German war in 1871. More than a thousand years before, there had been a German Empire that formed part of the great Frankish empire of Charlemagne. From the time of this ancient empire to the formation of the recent one many changes had taken place. Sometimes the empire included more than it

did before the Great War and sometimes less, and before the union of 1871 the land which we now call Germany consisted of numerous independent states.

These agreed, however, that they would form themselves into an empire, with the king of Prussia at its head. The title of Kaiser was given to him, and although he was not the monarch of each German state, yet he was the head of the imperial government, and his authority was given to him by the combined government of all the states. Each state had its own ruler and its own government, but, for matters affecting them in common, the German Parliament, with the Kaiser at its head, controlled the affairs of all the states in the empire. The Kaiser had great authority, for he was the head both of the army and navy and could make peace and war, but he could not do exactly as he pleased, as the Tsar of Russia could before the Russian Revolution in 1917. By the final defeat of the German army in 1918 and the flight of Kaiser William II to Holland, the German Empire, as it existed after 1871, fell to pieces. Between the signing of the Armistice, 11 November, 1918, and the signing of the Peace at Versailles, 28 June, 1919, there was a period of great disorder in Germany. On 31 July the New Constitution, consisting of 181 articles, was passed, as representing the sovereign will of the German people. The head of the government is the Imperial President, and the various states become "territories" or "lands"; but in all cases the law of the Realm is above the law of the State, and the union of the German people is established in the new form of government.

This late empire, which now may be correctly called Germany, is the most central country of Europe. Its

general slope is toward the North and Baltic Seas. The land bordering upon these seas consists chiefly of the "lands" of Prussia and Hanover and is one long stretch of flat country. Here lakes, marshes, peat, and heather patches abound, while the climate is cold owing to its exposure to the winds from the Arctic. In the central and southern parts of Germany the climate is drier and warmer, and a corresponding change in the productions takes place. In the low, flat, northern region oats, rye, flax, hemp, and potatoes are cultivated, but as the southern part is reached, silk and wine are produced, and rich crops of corn are raised.

The western part of Germany has a climate similar to that of the British Isles. The warm south-westerly and westerly winds blow frequently in winter, and in consequence western Germany is enjoying a mild climate while the eastern part is suffering the rigours of an unbroken frost. As the Baltic is frozen in winter, its waters cannot rise above the freezing-point until all the ice is melted. For this reason the spring in the lands along this coast is both cold and late. Very different conditions are experienced in the Rhine valley. Here the swallows are returning, and the almond and apricot trees are bursting into flower, while snow is lying on the ground in eastern Prussia and the frost does not break up till the middle of March.

The centre and south of Germany are the mountainous districts, and the summits of the southern part are mostly branches of the Alps. Of these the Erzgebirge, or Ore mountains, are rich in minerals such as silver, iron, copper, and lead. In the south and west thick forests clothe the mountains, which are spoken of as "forests" instead of mountains. The Black Forest, in



the south-west, is so named, and its western slopes are drained by the Rhine. This is a beautiful district, whose hills and valleys, with their dense woods and rich verdure, attract many lovers of nature in the summer months.



The summit of the Brocken

The Harz mountains are the chief heights in central Germany, in which mining has been carried on for centuries, and still the supply of minerals is not exhausted. The Brocken, a mountain of about the same height of Snowdon, is the chief summit. This is a

strange region, and tales of sprites, goblins, and spectres are told by the peasants of the Harz district.

The "Spectre of the Brocken" may be seen by the visitor when the sun is rising or setting, if there is a thick mist in the air opposite the sun. On the mist a huge giant-like form of the spectator himself is seen. If he moves, the "ghost" moves likewise, and for a long time the people regarded this as supernatural and were struck with an awe bred of superstition. Now that we know that the appearance is but a magnified shadow of the spectator thrown upon the mist, the phenomenon is robbed of its ghostly terrors, but its interest remains.

An examination of the map will show that the rivers of Germany, flowing from the central highlands, proceed to the North and Baltic Seas in a north or north-westerly direction. The only river that flows right across these highlands is the much-loved Rhine, and this binds southern and northern Germany together. While the Rhine flows down the beautiful valley between the Vosges mountains, clothed with rich vineyards, and the Black Forest, the Danube rises on the eastern side of this grand range and begins its course on its way to the Black Sea. In the summer time, when the rivers of the northern plains sink by reason of drought, the Rhine, fed by the melting of the Alpine glaciers in which it takes its rise, has an exceptional depth of water. The Vistula, no longer a German river but a highway of Poland, with the free port of Danzig at the mouth, the Oder, the Elbe, and the Weser are all adapted for trade; but of all the German rivers the Rhine is the great highway of the country.

Nearly half of the surface of Germany is under cultivation, and only about one-tenth may be considered

waste land. Many varieties of plant life are to be found in this country, and there are thousands of varieties of insects. In the "Great Ice Age," when the great European plain was covered with a cap of ice, most of the species of plants died out; but when milder conditions of climate came, new varieties made their way into Germany from the east. Then it was that the feather



A bridge of boats on the Rhine

grass of the Hungarian plain and the Black Sea steppes gained a footing in Europe.

The larger wild animals, such as the bear and wolf, have been exterminated, and the last bison was killed in 1775. The stag and wild boar are still found in the forests, but no reindeer have been met with since the Middle Ages. In the higher regions of the German Alps the chamois leaps from rock to rock. The rivers flowing into the North and Baltic Seas abound in salmon, but this fish is not found in the Danube. Oysters are

plentiful off the shallow coast of Slesvig, and the only place where lobsters are found is around the island of Heligoland, which formerly belonged to Great Britain. This island was very strongly fortified by Germany, but by the terms of the new Versailles treaty all the fortifications, the military establishments, and the harbour are being dismantled.

## 21. GERMANY. THE PEOPLE AND THEIR PURSUITS

In the last chapter we spoke about the country of Germany and the conditions under which the people have to live. It will now be interesting to learn something of the people themselves, and to try to understand how they made the best of their surroundings and became the powerful nation they were before the Kaiser launched the Great War that brought about their downfall.

Before the birth of Jesus Christ, the German tribes inhabited only the northern part of the country. At that time the Celts were living in the central parts of the land and on the left bank of the Rhine. Just as the Saxons displaced the Celts in Britain, so these northern Germans, of the same race as the Saxons, displaced the Celts of central Germany. Some, however, remained, and at the present day the dark complexions and dark eyes of the people in this region remind us of these Celts. In the early days the Germans were a moving or nomadic people, and as they left this part of the country, Slavonic people, or Wends, as the Germans



call them, took their place. These came from the east, spread into the northern parts, and became the forefathers of many of the people of northern Germany; but there is no difference now between the Slavs and the Germans. They all speak the German language, and are entirely German in feeling.

In those parts of the country, which until the eighteenth century belonged to the kingdom of Poland, the people, in spite of severe measures to make them speak German, continued Polish both in speech and feeling. The Poles numbered just under three millions, and comprised a large part of the people of Germany who spoke a foreign language. They are now once more united with the Russian and Austrian Poles, and together they form the new state of Poland.

The Germans are an industrious, steady, loyal, and thoughtful people, and show intense love for their country, which they proudly call the "Fatherland." Their system of education was carried to great perfection, and their technical schools were probably the best in the world. In these schools the German youth was instructed in commercial pursuits and in the science of manufactures. This valuable training did much to make Germany one of the chief trading and manufacturing countries of the world. Thoroughness and method in doing things are strong points in the German character, and although the rules and regulations of this country would be irksome to a nation like Britain, yet the discipline which the Germans have undergone has given them an advantage in the competition with other nations.

A large part of the land which at one time was covered with trees has been cleared and now produces heavy crops. Germany yields large quantities of rye,

oats, wheat, barley, flax, hemp, and beet-root used for sugar manufacture, an industry in which Germany has taken the lead. The country, however, does not grow enough food for its people, and large supplies of wheat, maize, and barley are imported. The vineyards of the Rhine valley are famous throughout Europe, and from the beet-root grown in Silesia and other parts of Prussia so much sugar is produced that the British supply, once obtained from the West Indies, was largely obtained from Germany before the war. In the north-eastern part of the country potatoes form an important crop, and from the potato are made spirits, both for drinking and for use in manufactures. Bavaria is the great hop-growing region, and nearly a quarter of the barley grown in the country is produced here. Bavaria alone has five thousand breweries, in which is made the lager beer for which Germany is so famous.

Although many forests have been cleared, yet they still cover a fourth part of Prussia and are plentiful in other parts. In the sandy districts of the north German lowland the train runs for hours between silent heaths covered with Scotch firs. The trade in timber is still very great, and it is interesting to note that this has been going on for many years. The piles on which Amsterdam was built, and the ships in which Ruyter and Tromp fought their sea fights against Britain were once trees growing in the Black Forest region.

Cattle, horses, and swine are bred in great numbers, and the Westphalian hams are well known and command a ready sale. Sheep, producing a fine quality of wool, are found on the uplands, and the famous "Berlin wool" has been sent to all parts of the world. But since the importation of wool from abroad, the number of sheep



Black Forest pines

in Germany has diminished. The goat finds a home on the mountain sides, where it is kept for the milk that it yields. Since the introduction of the sugar manufacture from beet-root, the number of swine kept has increased, chiefly because the refuse from the beet-root provides food for these animals.

The German Empire, however, is much more than an agricultural country, and her people before the outbreak of the late war were in a state of change from a population working mostly on the land to one engaged in manufactures and other industrial pursuits. The Germans have been miners for centuries, and the skilfulness of their methods has done much to bring success to their efforts. The richest coal-field is in the valley of the Rühr, a tributary of the Rhine, and coal is also obtained in the districts of the rivers Saar and Ill. As a compensation for the destruction of the coal mines in northern France, Germany has been obliged to cede the basin of the Saar to France for a period of 15 years. At the expiration of this time, the people of the Saar district will decide whether they wish to be governed by France or Germany. Before the war, 12,000,000 tons of coal were produced annually from this region. Not only is there plenty of coal, but excellent iron is also found in the district, a circumstance that has led to the rise of quite a number of manufacturing towns. The town of Essen is the site of the great Krupp gun works; and Elberfeld, Crefeld, and Aachen are towns engaged in making cotton and woollen goods. The works at Essen are now engaged in making agricultural implements and machinery for milling corn. Germany exported large quantities of coal to the neighbouring countries of France, Switzerland, and Italy, but the northern



parts were supplied from Britain. This may seem strange, but the reason is that coal could be brought more cheaply from Britain by sea than carried overland from the German collieries.

Besides the production of coal and iron, in which Germany was ahead of every other country in Europe except Britain, rock salt and mineral potash are very abundant, and are found in the northern plain.



German battle-cruiser steaming in to surrender

Germany has suffered many times in her history from foreign invasion, and by looking at the map it will be seen that it might occur again. To prevent this, the Germans formed a strong army. Every German youth might be called upon to serve in the army or navy, and most became either soldiers or sailors for two years. Even in time of peace the army consisted of about

600,000, and in time of war as many as 3,000,000 soldiers could be raised, and many more were called to the colours in the recent war.

By the treaty of Versailles the army must not exceed 100,000 men, and may only be employed to keep order and control the frontiers.

With an increasing population, of which great numbers emigrate to America and places not under the control of the German government, the Germans were anxious for colonies of their own, where their own kith and kin could go ; but there have long been few vacant places fit for European habitation. Successful as Germany was in the Franco-German war of 1870-1, her great victories were on land, and the French navy had complete command of the sea. After that time Germany turned her attention to remedy this, and built a large and powerful navy. Not only did she possess many ships of war, but her huge liners, which crossed the Atlantic, were some of the largest in the world. Most of the German warships had to be surrendered by the terms of the Armistice and Peace treaty, while the other vessels in foreign ports were also forfeited. Only six battleships, six light cruisers, twelve destroyers, and thirteen torpedo boats will now constitute the German navy.

## 22. SOME GERMAN CITIES

Germany has about forty towns with a population of more than a hundred thousand. Berlin, the capital of the duchy of Brandenburg, the late kingdom of Prussia, and the German Empire, stands on the Spree, a tributary of the Elbe. Its population is about a quarter of that



Unter-den-Linden, Berlin

of London. Berlin is one of the finest and most modern cities in Europe. The famous street Unter-den-Linden, which means "Under the Lime Trees," is one of the show places of the city. It is almost a mile in length, and, divided into avenues by rows of lime trees, extends from the Royal Palace to the Brandenburg Gate. Close to the Palace stands the statue of Frederick the Great, and on the top of the Brandenburg Gate itself is a huge figure of "Victory" riding in a car drawn by four horses.

Berlin is noted not only for its wide streets and fine buildings, but also for its trade and manufactures. The Spree, here about two hundred feet wide, is crossed by forty bridges, and from its position the city has become the great railway centre for central Europe. The district around Berlin is as fine as the city itself. Eighteen miles from the city is Potsdam, standing on the river Havel. Here Frederick the Great built his fine palace of Sans Souci, which means "free from care," and this was one of the royal residences of the last Kaiser. Berlin as a seat of learning is one of the most noted in Germany, and its university has had many famous scholars and professors upon its roll.

Hamburg, with its sister town of Altona, is the second city in size. It stands about 75 miles from the mouth of the Elbe and is the greatest commercial town of central Europe. Hamburg, as large as Liverpool, with Altona equal to Glasgow, owes its importance to the river Elbe. It is the largest port on the mainland of Europe and the third in the whole world. By means of its river and the canals joining the Oder and Vistula, trade from central Germany and from Russia is brought to Hamburg. The Hamburg-American line of steamers



started from this port to America, and the vessels of Hamburg alone formed almost half of the German merchant shipping. A large business in banking and ship-building is carried on, while some fourteen thousand vessels entered and left the port every year before 1914.

Munich, the capital of Bavaria, a state next in size to Prussia, is the third city in Germany. It stands on



Nuremberg

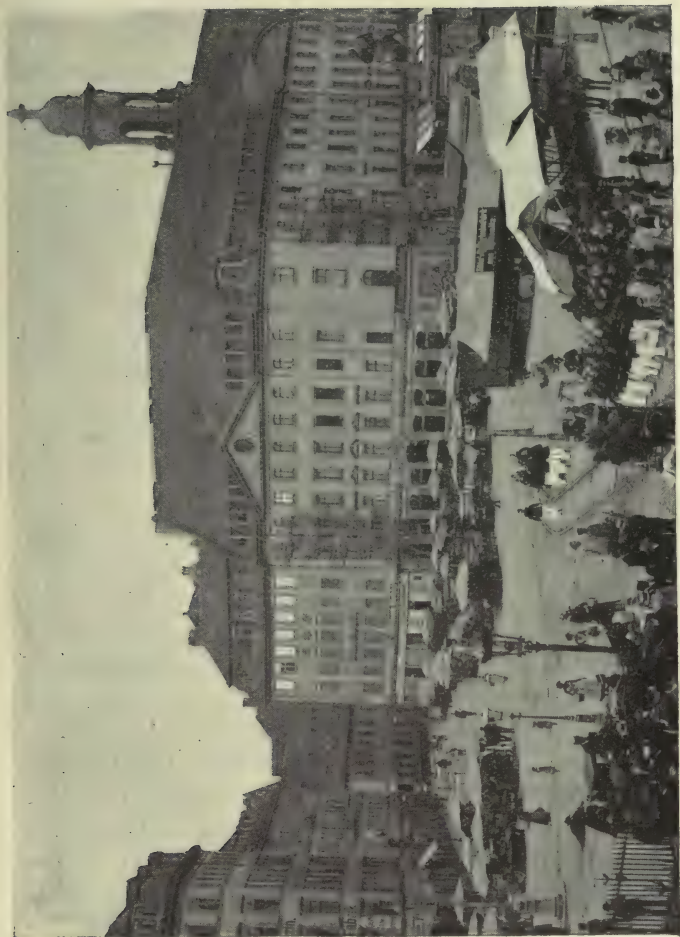
the Iser, a tributary of the Danube, and has been greatly extended in recent years. Its streets, its buildings, museums, and statues are beautiful, and it contains the finest square in Europe. A few miles south of Munich is the village of Ober-Ammergau, where the Passion Play is performed by the villagers every ten years. In this play a reverent representation of the history and suffer-

ings of Jesus is given, and this attracts visitors from all parts of the world.

Leipzig, in Saxony, is a fine city with a university which is one of the oldest in Germany. It is a famous publishing and printing centre and has a great trade in books. Fifty thousand traders, drawn from Europe, America, and Asia, attend its fairs, which are held three times a year. But besides the publication of books in almost every language, Leipzig has manufactures of cotton, wool, iron, and machinery. The Supreme Court of Justice met here, and so it shared with Berlin some of the imperial power of the great empire.

Nuremberg, like Munich, is in Bavaria, and is the quaintest and most interesting town in Germany. Its many-towered walls, its gateways, its picturesque streets, its gabled houses, and its beautiful Gothic fountains make it a centre of great charm to the visitor. Toys of all kinds are made here and many of the leaden soldiers, "Noah's arks," and dolls that delighted the children of every land, came from Nuremberg. Black lead pencils are made from the graphite obtained from Passau on the Danube, and the manufactures of type, chemicals, and other things have occupied the workers in the two hundred factories of this old-world town.

Dresden, the capital of Saxony, is one hundred and sixteen miles from Berlin. The city can boast of many fine buildings, among which its museum is the best in Germany. Standing on the Elbe, where the river enters Germany, it has a very picturesque situation. Everyone is familiar with Dresden china, a priceless collection of which is found in the museum. This famous porcelain, however, is not made in Dresden, but at Meissen, fourteen miles away.



The market-place, Dresden

Breslau, standing on the Oder, in Silesia, is a great manufacturing centre. Its chief trade is in wool, and the sales amount to £2,000,000 yearly. Breslau is a wealthy town, and the people use their money well. The poor, the suffering, and those needing help are well looked after, and much is done for neglected children. Breslau has been sometimes a Prussian city, and sometimes it has belonged to Austria—a fact which shows that it has endured the horrors of war. Often besieged in the early years of the nineteenth century, in 1814 its fortifications were entirely demolished, but since 1890 it has been a first class fortress.

The towns in the Rhine province are both interesting and important. Mainz and Coblenz are strong fortresses, and Bonn is a noted university town, where the Prince Consort, the husband of Queen Victoria, and many other distinguished men were students.

Two towns west of the Rhine valley are interesting to students of far-off times. Trier, or, as the French call it, Trèves, is an ancient Roman town with many remains of Roman buildings. The ancient Aachen, or Aix-la-Chapelle, was the capital of the empire of Charlemagne, which was larger than that of any German ruler since, except Charles V. Many other towns, such as the important seaports of Lübeck, Stettin, and Bremen, might well claim our attention, but we must be content to finish with Cologne, standing on the Rhine. Most people have heard of Eau-de-Cologne, a refined perfume, manufactured here. But the glory of the city is its cathedral, which is one of the finest in Europe. The spires are 515 feet high, more than half the height of the Eiffel Tower in Paris, and it took centuries to complete the building. The great bell of the cathedral,



the "Kaiserglocke," made out of French cannon, weighs over twenty-six tons.

The old streets of the city are mostly crooked and narrow, but when the original fortifications were removed, the handsome boulevard, or the Ringstrasse, was made. This encircles the old town, and is nowhere less than 60 feet wide. Cologne is well situated for trade, and a famous bridge of boats crosses the Rhine here. Founded as early as 37 B.C., Cologne has long been famous in history, and it is one of the most important towns in the Germany of to-day.

## PART III

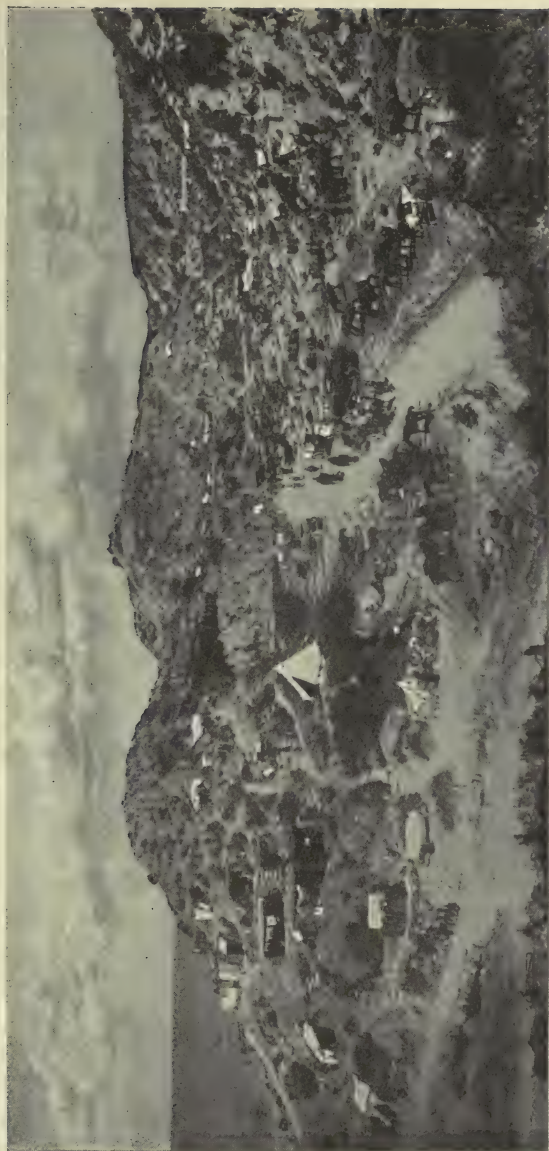
### THE MEDITERRANEAN

#### 23. THE MEDITERRANEAN REGION. A GENERAL SURVEY

We are apt to think of the Mediterranean Sea merely as a boundary of Europe separating it from Asia and Africa. We must not be misled, however, by this idea, for the countries round the Mediterranean form one region, with peoples living under like conditions of climate and natural surroundings. By looking upon the Mediterranean as including the area surrounding the sea, we shall only be returning to the meaning which the Mediterranean had for the Greeks in ancient days. To them it was "a rim of coast lands encircling the Midland Sea, which is Our Sea."

Let us try to learn something about this great body of water, around which so many of the events that have interested people in all ages have taken place.

The Mediterranean is the largest inland sea in the world, and is land-locked, except at its western and eastern ends. There is no wonder that it was called the "Mediterranean," for it is indeed in the middle of the land, as its name implies. At its western end the Strait of Gibraltar, only nine miles across, opens into the Atlantic, while by the Dardanelles, or the Hellespont, as the Ancient Greeks called the strait, we can leave it for the Sea of Marmora; it was this strait which the British



Gallipoli, 1915

fleet strove to force during the Great War, in order to reach Constantinople, while British and French troops were fighting desperate battles against the Turks on Gallipoli, the peninsula which guards the entrance to the Dardanelles.

In 1869 an artificial opening, the Suez Canal, was made to connect the Mediterranean with the Red Sea. This immense sea stretches from west to east for more than 2000 miles, and in its widest part the distance from the European to the African shore measures between five and six hundred miles.

The waters of the Mediterranean are as gentle as a lake in summer and better adapted for oars than sails, but in winter it is sometimes like an ocean, tossed into fury by great storms. It is constantly losing its water by evaporation, and only three large rivers, the Nile, Po, and Rhone, flow into it to make up the deficiency. If this were not made up from the Atlantic at its western end, and from the big fresh-water supplies brought down by the Russian rivers and the Danube into the Black Sea at its eastern end, part of it would dry up, and it would be reduced to a chain of salt lakes. As it is, its waters are saltier than those of the ocean, and this saltiness increases in its more eastern parts.

What we should call a tide is unknown in the Mediterranean. It has a small ebb and flow of its own, but the big ocean tides are only felt for a short distance inside the strait of Gibraltar. This has caused the harbours, landing places, and docks to be placed close to the sea, and it is as easy to put to sea or to pull ashore on this sea as on an English river.

Men first gained a knowledge of navigation on the Mediterranean. Phoenician traders sailed its waters in



all directions, and even went out into the great ocean beyond, and made their way to Britain for tin. Venice and Genoa in the Middle Ages contended for the chief trade. After the discovery of the Cape route to India in 1497 the Mediterranean ports lost the trade in eastern products; but since the opening of the Suez Canal a gradual return of prosperity has come to them, so that the Mediterranean is now the great highway of trade to India, China, and Australia.

But the sea is something more than a highway for ships. It has productions of its own. The North Sea has its herrings, Norway its salmon, and Newfoundland its cod. These bring prosperity to those engaged in catching them, but the Mediterranean has no such important fisheries. Its chief fish are the tunny, the anchovy, and the sardine; and from the Aegean Sea, the eastern Adriatic, and off the shores of Tunis and Tripoli sponges are collected.

In the Mediterranean region the climate varies greatly between season and season, but not, as the British weather, from day to day. The peoples around this sea think more of dryness and moisture, and less about heat and cold, than we do in this country. Summer and winter are real and marked divisions, and the changes in spring and autumn are very sudden. In summer in these lands, there is a steady north wind blowing and the sky is very clear; but the winds in winter blow from all quarters, and this is the time of the rainfall. Except on the mountains, in the coldest month the temperature is well above freezing-point, although, on an average, snow falls in Athens on five or six days in the year.

As the Greeks in olden times did not go to sea in

winter, they selected their harbours to avoid the north wind. Many of them for this reason face the south and are exposed to the open sea in winter. We can now understand the passage in the Acts, where we are told that St Paul's ship managed with difficulty to reach the harbour of "Fair Havens," but that it "was not commodious to winter in."

In the summer there is scarcely any rainfall in the Mediterranean region, but in the winter the westerly winds bring rain to these lands. As this region is warm throughout the year, vegetation depends almost entirely upon the rains. During the summer plants cease to grow, or die, but with autumn rains they show fresh signs of life and put forth new leaves. For plants in these lands summer is the time for resting, but in England the very opposite takes place. Only plants with thick leathery leaves or long penetrating roots, which are able to keep the little moisture they can obtain from the ground or send down their roots in search for it, live through the long summer droughts. In spring these lands are bright with many-coloured flowers, the grass grows, and the autumn-sown corn becomes tall; but as the weather grows hotter and hotter, the grasses turn brown, and to a northern visitor a feeling of desolation prevails. Except on the hill slopes, there are no masses of broad-leaved trees, so charming in the summer woods farther north. Vines, however, are loaded with ripening fruit; the gorgeous scarlet flower of the pomegranate gleams amid the dark foliage; olive trees show masses of small green fruit; and there are round balls on the orange and lemon trees.

If we examine a map of the Mediterranean region, we shall notice that this sea is divided into a smaller

western and a larger eastern portion. It will also show us that the western basin is almost entirely shut in by a mountain wall in Spain, France, and Italy, with only two great breaks in it. One is between the Pyrenees and the central tableland of France, and the other is the Rhone valley between the Cevennes and the Alps. On the African side the Atlas mountains provide a



The shores of the Mediterranean at Monte Carlo

similar boundary for the Mediterranean Sea on the south.

The surroundings of the eastern basin, which lies farther south, are quite different. On the north or European side there is no continuous barrier of mountain heights, and on the south there are no mountains at all.

Stretching away beyond the northern barrier are the lands of central Europe, but on the African side the boundary of this region has only the great Sahara behind it, and this desert, in the eastern part, leaves only a narrow plain not swallowed up by the ocean of sand. The African shores of the eastern Mediterranean are desert, until the fertile delta of the Nile is reached. The coast is destitute of islands and its monotony is only relieved by two large gulfs.

Very different is the Aegean Sea on the north. It is studded with numerous beautiful islands, and cuts Greece on the west and Asia Minor on the east into many peninsulas and small bays, which provide excellent harbours. Between Italy and the shores of the Balkan peninsula is the Adriatic, with Venice at the head of its waters. No wonder, then, that Mediterranean peoples have always been good sailors, especially the men of the eastern seas. The Aegean waters have ever provided an ideal training ground for the sailor, alluring to his senses, stimulating to his courage, and offering a reward for his maritime enterprise.

#### 24. THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA. FROM WEST TO EAST

We shall now try to learn some particulars about the two portions of the Mediterranean Sea. We cannot do this better or more pleasantly than by making a voyage in one of the great steamers that starts from Tilbury Docks for India and passes through the Mediterranean.



As we get near the Strait of Gibraltar in one of these India-bound vessels, we shall notice the shores draw nearer together and that the land on either side is mountainous. On the south stands the African town of Tangier, while on the north is the white seaport of Tarifa, the most southerly point of Spain. This is the narrowest part of the strait, and at one time in the



The Rock of Gibraltar

world's history these "Pillars of Heracles," as the rocks on either side were named by the ancients, were joined. Soon after we pass Tarifa the lion rock of Gibraltar comes into view. At first it appears like an island, but this is because it is joined to Spain only by a narrow sandy isthmus that is raised but little above the sea.

On the west of Gibraltar rock is a broad bay, in which may be seen a British fleet lying at anchor. Eastward the Rock looks out on the blue waters of the Mediterranean. At the foot of the Rock, on the western side, are government docks and the town of Gibraltar. The British flag has flown here ever since Sir George Rooke captured Gibraltar from Spain in 1704. Gibraltar is so strongly fortified that it can stop ships on their way out of or into the Mediterranean, and thus it is called "The Key of the Mediterranean." Yet, important as it is, Gibraltar is only about three miles long and occupies only about two square miles. The sun here is hot, and palms, orange trees, vines and figs may be seen growing.

We shall only stay here just long enough to take in some coal or to land passengers or goods, and then we are off again, round the south-eastern corner of Spain. Away to the south is Algeria, one of the Barbary states on the African coast. We soon lose sight of Spain, but the Balearic Islands come into view, and Majorca, the largest of them, shows a fine range of cliffs. Leaving these behind, if the weather is clear we may perhaps get a glimpse of the snowy tops of the Pyrenees, showing on our left hand. Our course is now across the Gulf of Lions, a name given it on account of its storms; for the sea here is rough, owing to the strong winds which blow down the Rhone valley, a gap between the Cevennes and the Alps.

Marseilles is at last sighted, with mountains towering up in the distance behind. Soon we steam into the port and make fast to the wharf side, with the houses overlooking us. Marseilles is the chief port of France, and since the opening of the Suez Canal it has made

rapid advance as one of the world's maritime trading centres. After a few hours' sail from Marseilles we begin to see the high peaks of Corsica on the port, or left side, of the steamer, while, soon after, the lower summits of Sardinia appear on the starboard bow.

Corsica is a French island, and in its capital, Ajaccio, Napoleon Bonaparte, the great Emperor of the French, was born. Sardinia is an Italian island, and is much larger than its neighbour. Our course lies between these islands through the Strait of Bonifacio into calm water after the stormy Gulf of Lions. All these islands are but fragments of a land mass that has sunk beneath the waters of the Mediterranean in days long ago.

Proceeding now in a south-easterly direction across the Tyrrhenian Sea, where the water is very deep, we find rocky islets on either side of us. These are the Lipari Isles, a group of volcanic cones, built up from the bed of the sea. One of these particularly attracts our attention. It is a pointed mountain, nearly as high as Snowdon, and it rises steeply from the sea. If we watch it carefully, we shall notice that a small cloud hangs about its top, and at intervals, varying from 15 to 30 minutes, jets of steam shoot up from the mountain and unite with the cloud above. This mountain is called Stromboli, and at night each little eruption lights up the cloud over the top, which casts its reflection on the sea. For this reason Stromboli has been called the "Lighthouse of the Mediterranean."

The mountain coast of Sicily soon begins to show itself ahead. This appears to be unbroken, but the vessel heads for the centre of it. As we approach the island, a turn is made under Cape Faro, and the narrow passage dividing Sicily from Italy, called the Strait of



Messina, is entered. This is only  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles wide, and as the strong currents entering this strait are swirled round the cape at the north-east corner of Sicily, a whirlpool is formed. We saw that the Mediterranean has no real tides, but its currents are numerous, and in this strait occur some of the most noted.

On leaving the Strait of Messina, our track is east-south-east, and, as Sicily is left behind, the dark forested slopes and the white top of Etna form a striking picture. From the summit of this cone, which is 87 miles round at its base, we can just see white whiffs of steam issuing from the crater. Along the coast we may admire lovely landscapes with vineyards and groves of olives, oranges, and lemons, varied with fruit trees in rich blossom.

In spite of all this loveliness, it is a volcanic district, and in 1909 it was visited by a terrible earthquake, which caused great loss of life and destruction of property around the Strait of Messina. We now enter the eastern Mediterranean, which is even larger than the western. Had we come straight from Gibraltar, we should have passed through a very much broader strait than that of Messina. This is the shallow Sicilian or Tunis Strait, 100 miles across, lying between Sicily and Africa. About 60 miles south of Sicily is the group of Maltese islands. They belong to Britain, and Malta, the largest, has a fine harbour at Valetta, its capital. This is strongly fortified, and is provided with a dockyard for the repair of Britain's Mediterranean fleet. These islands are situated almost midway between Gibraltar and Egypt, and, although less than the county of Rutland in size, their importance as a calling place for ships, as a coaling station, and as a strong fortress is





**Messina**

very considerable. These islands with Sicily form part of a bank which in the remote past formed a land bridge between the continents of Europe and Africa. Visitors to the Maltese caves may see the remains of animals that wandered along it in the far off past.

Still proceeding in a south-easterly direction we shall come to the island of Crete, or Candia, as it is called. Crete is a most interesting island. It is very fertile, and in ancient times is said to have had a hundred cities. Cattle are pastured on the mountain slopes; grapes and olives, as well as corn, are grown on the plains. Many ancient remains have been discovered, which point to the fact that some thousands of years before the Christian era civilization and arts were in a flourishing condition. From this island, when its people were scattered, the Philistines went to the coast lands of Palestine and played an important part in Hebrew history.

Our journey's end is approaching, for in 24 hours after leaving Crete behind the water of the sea loses its blue colour and becomes a muddy brown. The mouths of the Nile cannot be very far off. Palm trees appear in sight on the land ahead, and further signs of a shipping centre come into view. We know that Port Said, at the entrance to the Suez Canal, is near at hand.

It is interesting to remember that around the shores of the Mediterranean some of the greatest events in the world's history have taken place. Here the great civilizations of Greece and Rome flourished and passed away, but have left their influence on the rest of Europe, and indeed on the whole world. Along its eastern coast arose Christianity, which has exerted so much influence

for the benefit of the world. Bearing this in mind, we may well call this wonderful piece of water by the name which the ancients gave to it, the "Great Sea."



Ancient jars at Cnossos, in Crete

25. "THE PENINSULA." ITS PEOPLE  
AND INDUSTRIES

Our attention will now be turned to the European countries bordering on the Mediterranean, and we will begin with the Spanish peninsula, which includes the countries of Spain and Portugal in the south-west of Europe, and is sometimes spoken of as "The Peninsula." Short names are often given to things with which we are familiar, and just as sailors call the rock of Gibraltar simply "The Rock," so the people of Britain gave this shortened name to the Spanish peninsula. This familiar title was gained more than a hundred years ago, when the Duke of Wellington was fighting the French in the war against Napoleon, known in history as the Peninsular War.

A large part of the Peninsula consists of table-land, the average height of which is more than two thousand feet, and which is crossed from east to west by mountain ranges called Sierras. The great mountain wall of the Pyrenees separates Spain from France, and the roads and railways enter the country at the ends of these mountains, along the coast of the Mediterranean and along that of the Bay of Biscay. The ranges of mountains running across the country are separated by wide valleys, down which flow several long rivers, but they are mostly unimportant and of little value for navigation. The Guadalquivir, however, is a slow river, and, as it makes its way through the wide valley of Andalusia, it is navigable for a considerable distance above its mouth. The Tagus flows right across the middle of Spain, and passes through Portugal, until



it opens out into a wide basin at its mouth, forming one of the finest harbours in the world.

Other rivers of the Peninsula are the Douro, the Guadiana, and the Ebro, which, in time of rain and the melting of the snows, are well filled with water; but all the rivers except the Guadalquivir shrink with the heat of summer, and can only be used by very small vessels. In the south-east of Spain the mountains, which are rugged, are capped with snow, and in the Sierra Nevada is found the highest mountain of Spain, Mulhacen, which is nearly twelve thousand feet high. Here, too, is the most southerly glacier of Europe. Spain is the driest country in Europe, and water is its greatest need. Although it is an agricultural country, irrigation alone can make it productive. Water is sold every morning in the south-east of Spain, during the season of irrigation, for this purpose. On the irrigated lands oranges, mulberries, rice, onions, figs, and almonds are cultivated, while wheat and olives also form valuable crops.

Both Spain and Portugal produce great quantities of grapes, part of which are made into wine, and part are dried and are known as raisins. The vine grows in all parts of Spain, but flourishes most in the south. "Sherry" is a Spanish wine, and is so named from the town of Jerez, while "port" is a Portuguese production, and derives its name from Oporto, the town from which it is exported to other countries. Esparto grass, which grows in great luxuriance, is used for making mats, ropes, and bags, and large quantities are sent to Britain for the manufacture of paper. Most of the cork used throughout the world is cut from the oaks of Spain and Portugal, for the Peninsula is the home of the cork tree. Spain has a very active raisin trade and exports large quantities

of this fine dessert fruit. The best dried muscatels are produced by Malaga, which disposes of two and a half million boxes every year. The grapes are dipped in a mixture of water, ashes, and oil, and are then placed in the sun to dry. Some cane-sugar is also manufactured at Malaga, but the industry is not yet very important.



Malaga

Around Valencia the mulberry tree thrives, and although the methods of manufacture are old-fashioned, the trade is on the increase and some silk is exported. At one time the wool trade of Spain was important, but the carelessness of sheep-breeders has allowed such countries as Australia to take its place in the estimation of manufacturers.

The mineral wealth of Spain is enormous, and great attention is given to mining, which is in a flourishing condition. Much more might be done by the employment of better methods, however, and the means for conveyance also stand in the way. England is one of the best customers for Spanish ores, and nearly all the mercury used in the British Isles comes from Spain.

Spanish steel has always been famous, and before gunpowder was used in war, Spanish swords were renowned all over the world. The sword makers of Toledo, Valencia, and Zaragoza manufactured very artistic weapons. These were richly ornamented and they were very trustworthy as well. Toledo is still noted for its good swords, but these modern weapons are quite unlike the romantic-looking blades of the Middle Ages. At one time Spain was the most powerful country in the world; now it is somewhat behind some of the nations of Europe. The Spaniard is not a willing worker. In the afternoon every city in Spain is like a city of the dead, for it is then quite customary to sleep, or "take a siesta," as it is called.

The Spaniards are courteous, and they never think of leaving a room or tram without wishing "God speed" to those left behind; but they are proud and show great bitterness to those who may differ from them in religion or politics. Portugal, like Spain, has lost a good deal of its importance. At one time, the Portuguese were noted sailors and explorers, and the chief traders in Europe. In the present day they are more active than their Spanish neighbours, and pay more attention to trade and manufactures, but during recent times the country has been very disturbed, and in 1909 the king was obliged to flee, and a republic was declared.

Portugal has been our friend and ally for many centuries, and we have helped the Portuguese in their struggles against France and Spain. During the recent war the Portuguese fought side by side with the British in France. The Spaniards and Portuguese are not very good friends, and each nation considers itself superior to its neighbour.

Dancing is the favourite amusement of the people of Spain, but bull-fighting is the national sport. Sunday is the favourite day for this pastime. Both Madrid and Seville are famous places for bull-fighting. There is no need to ask the way to a bull-ring, for everyone is making his way to the same place. This is the time to see the national costume in all its picturesque varieties, and the merry throng of gaily-dressed aristocrats and excited country people alike take a common interest and a common pride in the contests. An afternoon programme usually consists of six events. These are all very much alike, except that the fiercest bulls are let loose in the arena at the last.

Bull-fighting is a very cruel pastime, and is degrading to those who witness it. The Spaniards go expecting to see bulls killed, horses gored to death, and many other horrors too terrible to think about. In Portugal it is very different, for, although it is still a dangerous pastime, the chief object is to show skill in teasing and playing with the infuriated bull, without giving him a chance to retaliate. The performer who gets himself or his horse injured is looked upon as being very clumsy.

Home is a great thing to the Spaniards, and it is the women who make the homes dear to the heart of their families. In the homes of the rich and poor alike cheerfulness reigns supreme. The smallest houses show



how strong is the national love for flowers, and the windows of houses in the meanest streets are richly bedecked with pots of blooms in rows, while creepers cling to the walls and trees rise from the roofs.

One of the most attractive features of a great many Spanish dwellings is the Oriental *patio*, or court, round which the house is built. In the summer an awning is drawn over the patio, seats are taken out, and the family or families in the surrounding house spend much of their time in this delightful out-of-door room, whose central fountain and shady trees form a welcome shelter from the heat and a delightful retreat from the glare of a southern sun.

On many occasions in our history Britain has come into conflict with Spain, and the defeat of the Spanish Armada is interesting to every Englishman. The deeds of our great seamen in capturing the Spanish galleons, laden with gold and silver from America, have formed subjects for many romances, dear to the heart of every schoolboy. But now these hostile feelings are gone, and to-day an English princess sits on the throne of Spain as the queen of Alphonso XIII.

## 26. TOWNS OF THE PENINSULA

Spanish towns are usually very quiet. There is no hurry or bustle, and for a couple of hours after noon everyone is asleep. As the cool of evening approaches, they wake up to scenes of gaiety. People come out to walk in the parks or along the promenades, where a band is playing, or to see the brightly-lighted shops, and to laugh and chat with their friends in the cafés.

Many of the towns of Spain possess buildings quite different from those built by Europeans. They resemble those of Arabia, Persia, and India, and remind us that for nearly eight hundred years the Arabs, or "Moors," as they were called, had a kingdom in the peninsula. The Moors were Mohammedans and came from Arabia. After conquering Egypt and the north of Africa, they crossed the Strait of Gibraltar in the eighth century and invaded Spain. Many cities were built by the Moors, and their buildings are the delight of travellers to-day.

Cordova was at one time the capital of the Moorish kings. Famous in Roman times, it became more so as a centre of learning, science, and literature, and was known far and near for the beauty of its buildings. Seven hundred mosques, nine hundred schools, and a thousand public baths were found within the city walls. The finest mosque was one of the wonders of the world, with its thousand pillars, its gorgeous roof, and its beautiful ornamentation. The pillars and arches were bright with precious stones, which sparkled in the light shed by lamps of brass, silver, and gold. To-day, Cordova's glory is gone, and Christian priests have taken the place of the Moslem. Cordova is still a city of 50,000 inhabitants, but signs of decay and ruin are seen everywhere in the narrow crooked streets of this once famous Moorish city.

The city fell to the sword of the Spaniard, and this was the beginning of the end of Moorish rule in Spain. Gradually their possessions shrank, until the kingdom of the Moors, which had stretched over the greater part of Spain, occupied only the country around the Sierra Nevada mountains and down to the coast.

After the fall of Cordova, Granada, situated in the south of Andalusia, became the Moorish capital. Near



Granada

it still stands the wonderful palace of the Alhambra, the most famous Moorish building in Europe. Standing

on a height, it was both a fortress and a palace, overlooking a fertile plain, rich with vineyards, orchards, and orange groves, and with the snowy summits of the Sierra Nevada in the distance. It is now in a decayed condition, but enough remains to show how beautiful it must once have been. Then it was a scene of enchantment, with its shady courts, where goldfish played in marble basins and the myrtle hedges cast their shadows upon the green water. Its courts and corridors, its galleries and its beautiful carvings, its colour and jewels charmed the eye of the beholder.

For two hundred years Granada was the Moorish capital, but at last it fell into the hands of the Spaniards, and although it still enchants the visitor with the glory of the palace of the Moorish kings, it is a city of the past.

Madrid is the capital of Spain. Standing in the centre of the great tableland, it has running through it a little river called the Manzanares, which in summer is like a rocky highway. Madrid is a large city; the streets are wide, well paved, well kept, and well lighted. Fine public buildings adorn the city, but there is very little trade. It can boast of fine shops and big hotels, but it is merely the capital and a place of residence for the well-to-do.

Madrid is not a healthy place, for in winter it is too cold and in summer it is too hot. Neither is the country round pleasing, for a bare and dreary plain stretches up to the walls of the city. But it has one of the finest picture galleries in the world. The Royal Picture Gallery is situated on the Prado, the fashionable promenade of Madrid. To this gallery every great artist and art student feels he must make a pilgrimage to see



the unrivalled collection of paintings by Velasquez. Not only are the pictures of this famous Spaniard here, but also those of Italian, Flemish, and other great master painters.

About thirty miles from Madrid is the palace of the Escorial. It is a dreary looking building with 11,000 windows, built in the shape of a gridiron by Philip II in honour of St Lawrence. As this saint is said to have



The Escorial, near Madrid

been roasted to death on a gridiron, the Escorial was laid out in this shape. Philip was in this palace when the news reached him of the defeat and destruction of the Armada.

Forty miles to the south of Madrid is Toledo. It stands on the north bank of the Tagus, and is built on hills more than two thousand feet in height. There is no finer view in Spain than of this city, with its

Moorish walls, its grand cathedral, and ancient churches, while the Tagus flows swiftly along beneath its bridges. It is a very ancient town, and was the capital when the Goth ruled the country.

In the north-east lies Barcelona, the second city of Spain in size, and an important seaport. But it is more than a place of trade, for the manufactures of cotton, woollen, and silk goods and tobacco are carried on here. Barcelona is the chief town of the province of Catalonia. The inhabitants are quite different from the ordinary Spaniards, whom they surpass in energy, industry, and intelligence. The town is beautifully situated, overlooking the Mediterranean, and in the background rise richly-wooded hills, surrounded by a fertile country.

Another important seaport is Cadiz, in the province of Andalusia. It is a very old town and was probably founded by the Phoenician merchants from Tyre. Cadiz reached its highest state of prosperity after the discovery of America, when it became the centre of all the commerce of the New World. In 1587 Drake destroyed the Spanish fleet in Cadiz harbour, and nine years later Essex pillaged the town. Large quantities of sherry are exported from Cadiz; and in addition to its trade in salt, cork, olive oil, and fruits, several industries, such as the manufacture of glass, hats, fans and gloves, occupy its people.

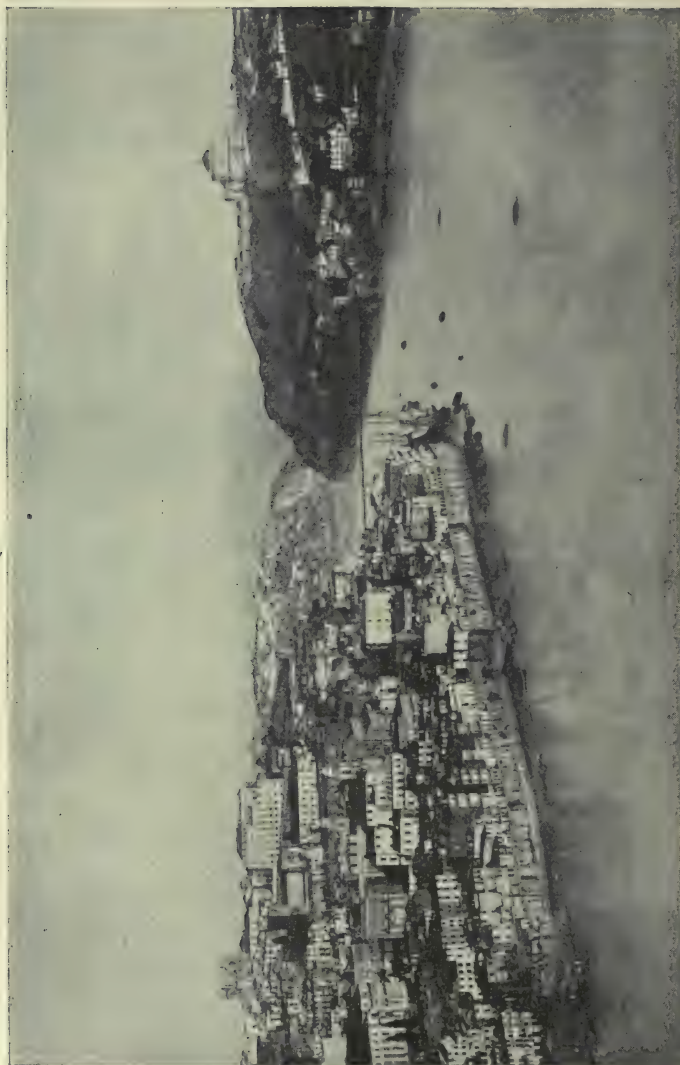
One of the most famous of Spanish towns is Seville, standing on the navigable Guadalquivir, 62 miles north-east of Cadiz. Until quite recently Seville had the picturesque appearance of a Moorish town, but the narrow streets have now been cleared away, and in their places wide ones, with modern houses and fine shops, have been built.

Seville has a fine Gothic cathedral, built on the site

of a Moorish mosque. It is one of the largest in Europe, and contains valuable paintings by the Spanish painter, Murillo, who was born in Seville. Another of the glories of the town is the Alcazar, or Moorish Royal Palace, whose halls and gardens are surpassed only by those of the Alhambra. Several important manufactures are carried on, and the royal factory employs 4000 work-people, who are engaged in making cigars.

Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, stands on the shore of a bottle-shaped extension of the Tagus, nine miles from its mouth. The city extends along the shore for four or five miles, and rises up the slopes of a low range of hills, occupying a site of most striking beauty. In 1755 Lisbon was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake, in which 30,000 people lost their lives. What remains constitutes the old part of the town, and has narrow, intricate streets. The new part, however, has wide streets, fine squares, and good houses. The finest building in the city is the monastery and church of Bolem, erected as a monument to the great seamen of Portugal. It was begun in 1500, on the very spot from which Vasco da Gama sailed on his great voyage, when he discovered the route to India round the Cape of Good Hope.

Seventeen miles from Lisbon is the little town of Cintra. Perched on the side of the Cintra mountains, it is one of the beautiful spots of Portugal. Many of the well-to-do people of the capital have villas at Cintra, where they go for a change of air and to escape the heat of the capital. In Cintra every nook is bright with wild flowers, and maiden-hair and other ferns grow in profusion. It possesses, in addition to its natural beauty, great historic interest, for there is an old half-Moorish



Oporto



palace, and the wonderful Pena Palace, standing high on the mountain top, while a ruined Moorish fort caps the crown of another summit. From the Pena Palace the King of Portugal used to gaze out to sea, watching for the return of Vasco da Gama from his expedition to India.

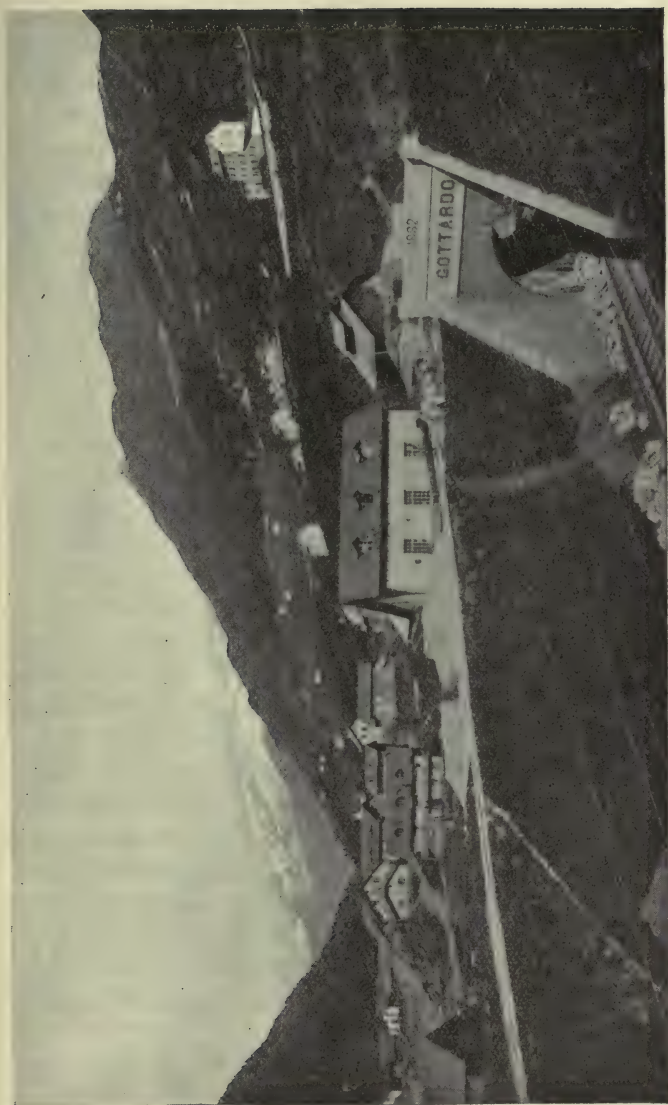
Another town of Portugal is worthy of notice. Oporto, a name meaning "the Port," is a busy seaport, second only to Lisbon itself. It stands high on the steep, rocky, right bank of the river Douro, 200 miles north of the capital. In Roman times it was called *Portus Cale*, a name from which Portugal is derived, and the city was for long a Christian stronghold that stood out against the attacks of the Moors. Oporto is the principal place for the export of port wine, and along the sides of its quays stand warehouses in which thousands of huge casks can be stored. The river Douro is always crowded with shipping, and the quays swarm with people loading the vessels with oranges, fruits, cork, and other products of the country.

## 27. ITALY

Italy, the central peninsula of the Mediterranean, is one of the most famous countries of Europe. Shut off from Austria, Switzerland, and France by the lofty Alps, Italy extends for a distance of more than 700 miles from north to south. It is a long narrow peninsula, shaped like a boot, with the island of Sicily at the toe. On the north and west the Alps curve suddenly to the east round the Gulf of Genoa, and continuing, as the Apennines, throughout the whole length of the peninsula, they reappear in the island of Sicily.

The traveller of to-day enters Italy by train, passing through tunnels pierced through the vast mountain chain of the Alps. In bygone days the traveller from France or Switzerland climbed by roads up the broad flanks of these mighty hills, traversed the lofty passes, and then, by roads that ran down on the Italian side entered the great plain of northern Italy. The Italian workman, the pedlar, and the traveller who is too poor to pay the railway fares have always kept to the open road. Since the motor car has become so general, these ancient ways over the Alps are being more and more used by tourists, who wish to enjoy a trip over an Alpine pass. The huge mountain barriers of the Alps descend steeply to the plain, drained by the Po, the most important river of Italy, and numerous spurs and mountain ranges enclose valleys of great beauty. In these valleys are the far-famed Italian lakes (which are really not Italian) so frequently visited by tourists. Lake Como is entirely Italian, but Maggiore, meaning the larger, and Lugano are partly Swiss, while Garda, the largest, lying to the east of Como and discharging its waters into the Po, stretches into the southern Tyrol, the land redeemed by Italy as a result of the war.

Except in the valley of the Po, Italy contains very little level ground. The fertile plain of northern Italy was formed in very early times by the filling up of the great gulf that lay between the Alps and the Apennines. In remote ages the Alpine glaciers made their way down to this gulf and brought quantities of stone and soil with them. This formed the foundation, and the fine soil, carried down by the many streams from the melting glaciers, overlaid it with the rich earth that now occupies the productive plain of Lombardy. This



The St Gotthard Tunnel, between Switzerland and Italy

plain is the most wealthy and prosperous part of Italy. Here the land is better cultivated than in the southern parts of the peninsula, and the people are more alert and more enterprising than their southern fellow-countrymen.

Italy is chiefly an agricultural country. The climate is dry and warm, and all the European, and some of the tropical, crops are grown with much success. In the plain of Lombardy several harvests are often gathered from the same field in one year. Rice, wheat, and maize flourish, while the vine, the orange, the lemon, and olive are plentiful in the south.

The plain of Lombardy is a land of great charm and fertility. The streams, rushing down from the Alps, water the fields, and make it a land of plenty. The roads wind by hills clothed with chestnut and tulip trees and topped with the olive and cypress. The Po is the chief waterway of the Lombardy plain, and one of the great rivers of Europe. Italy has also the Arno and the Tiber, but these are of little importance when compared with the Po. Everywhere in the northern plain the Italian peasant or farmer is to be seen in his fields tending his many crops. Long lines of mulberry trees are grown for the rearing of silkworms, which is a great industry of Lombardy. About fifty years ago disease made great ravages among the silkworms and the mulberry trees, and the silk industry was almost destroyed. This industry has now recovered, but it is not so large as formerly. The vines also were affected by blight, but, by the introduction of a hardier variety, the wine trade is steadily making progress.

Great havoc is caused among the crops of northern Italy by the dreadful hail-storms. Sometimes, on a bright



summer day, when the smiling plain is covered with crops promising a plentiful harvest, a mass of black cloud suddenly darkens the sky, and the storm bursts in thunder, lightning, and a fall of heavy hailstones. In a few minutes the crops are level with the ground and the fields become a whitened desert, while the labour of many months is entirely lost.

The Lombard of olden days was well-known as a merchant and money-changer, a fact kept in mind by Lombard Street, a name given to a street in London where there are banks and where money transactions take place.

The Lombard peasant lives in a very frugal style, and his food is of the simplest kind. As a rule, the Italian peasant is very poor, but he is patient and hard-working, and the blue sky and warm sun, which he is able to enjoy for the greater part of the year, help to render his life less hard than it otherwise would be. He is seen at his best in Tuscany, where the owner and peasant farmer are partners. The peasant works the farm, and the produce is divided between the landlord and himself. In northern Italy the farmers pay rent very much in the same way as is done in England. In southern Italy and in Sicily the condition of the labourer is wretched, for his work is hard, his wages are low, and his home is but a miserable hovel. In many parts of Italy chestnuts form a large part of the peasant's food. These are not only roasted, but dried and ground into meal, which is mixed with rye and maize flour to make bread. Forests of these sweet chestnuts line the sides of the Apennines, and autumn is a busy time for collecting the nuts.

Sulphur is the most important mineral, and is found chiefly in Sicily, whence most of this substance, used

in Europe, comes. Some of the most beautiful marble in the world comes from Carrara, and is the kind most often used for sculpture. Italy is becoming a great manufacturing country. Silk is the most important manufacture, and it gives employment to many people in the towns of Lombardy. Straw-plaiting, the making of coral ornaments, and the manufacture of beet-root sugar are carried on in various parts of the country.

The people of Italy are descended from the Romans, the Greeks, the Gauls, the Celts, and even from the Arabs. The Italians are good-natured and polite, though hot-tempered and quick to resent an injury. Italy has produced in the past some of the greatest painters, sculptors, musicians, and poets, but education is now in a very backward condition, although the government is spending great sums of money to make up for neglect in the past.

Before the discovery of the route round the Cape of Good Hope, Italy was of great commercial importance. After this her trade fell away. The opening of the Suez Canal and the railways through the Alps, however, have done a great deal to restore the importance of former times. Although the great Roman Empire had its capital in Italy and a great deal of the history of Europe is connected with this land, yet it was not until 1870 that the kingdom of Italy became a united country, with Rome as its capital.

Beauty and grandeur are found wherever one goes in Italy, and although there are cold winds at times, the climate is usually mild. The narrow strip of land along the Gulf of Genoa, protected from the cold north winds by the Apennines and Alps, is known as the Riviera, a word meaning "the Shore." This is a famous

winter resort for pleasure seekers and for invalids and persons unable to bear the raw, cold winters of northern Europe. In the towns and villages standing amidst groves of myrtles, oranges, and olives these visitors find a paradise of beauty overlooking the blue waters of the Mediterranean.

## 28. ROME

Rome has well been called "the Eternal City," and the name calls to mind events that show how important it has been in the world's history. More than 750 years before the birth of Christ there was founded a city on the banks of the Tiber, at a spot sixteen miles from its mouth. This was the city of Rome, which was destined to become the mother city of the Roman Empire and mistress of the world. Rome, surrounded by a wall which enclosed seven hills, was a magnificent city, with splendid temples, triumphal arches, great aqueducts, and fine palaces. In the Forum met soldiers, statesmen, and senators, whose fame is as fresh to-day as when they made their great speeches or wrote their great books. Although the city fell a prey to the Goths and Huns and the barbarian tribes from Germany, and to-day only ruined buildings remain to remind us of Rome's former glory, yet the great part she played in constructing good roads in all parts of the empire, in making good laws, and in every way advancing the cause of civilization has secured to her an influence for all time.

When the Roman Empire fell to pieces and the city ceased to be the Rome of the Caesars, it became the Rome of the Popes. Great churches, of which, in



addition to St Peter's, there are about three hundred, were built, and great artists adorned them with paintings and ornamentation of exquisite beauty. The Coliseum is a building of ancient Rome which arouses the greatest interest. It is still one of the grandest and most impressive buildings in the world. This vast amphitheatre, built to commemorate the conquest of the Jews by the Romans and capable of seating 80,000 people, was the scene of many deadly combats between men and wild beasts and of fights between gladiators—sports that delighted the Roman spectators. Here too the early Christian martyrs were "butchered to make a Roman holiday." Only about a third of the building remains, for from its stones walls, palaces, and half-cities have been reared before its destruction was stopped. Closely connected with the Christians are the catacombs, or vast underground caverns, extending for hundreds of miles in length under the city. To this subterranean Rome the Christians fled for safety; here they met for prayer and worship; and here, too, they were buried.

If the Coliseum is the most noted relic of Pagan Rome, the cathedral of St Peter is the finest church of Christian times. This is supposed to stand on the site of the tomb of St Peter, and in the year 306 A.D a great church was raised on the spot. This had stood for a thousand years when, in 1506, the foundation of the present cathedral was laid. Nearly two hundred years were spent in building it, and so large is the edifice that, if St Paul's cathedral in London were placed inside it, the Roman cathedral would not be nearly filled. Raphael, the great artist, laid out the general plan, which is in the form of a Greek cross, and the equally great Michelangelo designed the dome, which stands out as a landmark of the city.



St Peter's is full of splendid statues and tombs, and against one of the piers is the famous bronze statue of St Peter, which has been an object of veneration by the thousands of pilgrims who, for centuries, have thronged this great church.

Near the cathedral is the Vatican. This is the residence of the Pope and is the largest palace in the world, or, rather, it is a collection of palaces, museums, picture galleries, barracks, and offices, included under



St Peter's, Rome

the one name. It is, in fact, the prison of the Pope, for he never leaves the Vatican. When Italy became a united nation, the Pope lost his position as a reigning Italian prince; and now he never moves about his lost possessions, but remains shut up in the Vatican—all that remains of the once extensive Papal states. In this way the Pope shows the Church's disapproval of the change in the government of Italy in 1870. The

palace covers an extent of thirteen acres, and its picture galleries, libraries, and museums have wonderful paintings, ancient books, carvings, sculptures, and jewels of priceless value. The statue of Apollo is considered the most beautiful in the world.

The only building of Imperial Rome that remains entire is the splendid circular edifice of the Pantheon, a name that means a temple of all the gods, for before 609 A.D., when it became a Christian church, it was a place for the worship of all the Roman deities. Built by the emperor Hadrian, the interior is of noble design. No windows break the surface of the walls, but it is surmounted by a most beautifully shaped dome, in the apex of which is an opening 28 feet across, which lights the building. Around the walls, in niches, were placed the Roman gods, but these niches are now made into Christian altars. Raphael, the great painter, is buried in the Pantheon, which has been selected as the burial place of the Italian kings, two of whom have been laid to rest within its walls since Italy became united under one sovereign.

Some tall columns still stand in the ancient Roman Forum, where Cicero spoke, and the "City Fathers" met, and where, between the two famous hills of the Palatine and the Capitol, we may walk the very pavement which the senators trod in those far-off days. It was through the Forum that the victor marched on his return from a successful war, along the Via Sacra, or Sacred Way, on his progress of triumph to the Capitol, followed by the captives and trophies taken during his campaigns.

Not far distant are the triumphal arches of Constantine and Titus. The Arch of Constantine, built in



The Arch of Titus at Rome

A.D. 312, is of great size and is in good preservation. After the conquest of Jerusalem by Titus the Senate decreed that a triumphal arch should be erected to his honour, and this was built at the highest point of the Sacred Way. Many beautiful sculptures ornament this arch, one of which shows Titus himself, crowned with laurels, being drawn in his chariot with a crowd of Jewish captives in chains beside the chariot wheels. Thus the Arc de Triomphe of Napoleon in Paris was no new idea of that great emperor, but merely a repetition of what had been built in Rome for a similar purpose.

The oldest and most famous road out of Rome is the Appian Way. This is formed of immense blocks of stone, laid with such perfect exactness that, after nearly two thousand years, it is still sound and good. Tombs and monuments stand beside the Appian Way, for the Romans buried their dead and raised monuments near the most frequented ways, so that their memory might be kept in mind by the living.

Along the Appian Way the visitor will find himself in a very lonely and desolate stretch of country. This is the Roman Campagna. It is a region of desolation and sickness, caused by the malarial fever which haunts the district extending from near the mouth of the Arno to the Tiber. It was not always so, and the region is dotted about with ruins, which show that in Roman times seventy cities were scattered over the plains, and monuments, temples, and aqueducts were seen on every hand. No city in the world was better supplied with water than ancient Rome. One aqueduct is still in use, but the Goths destroyed the rest in the sixth century. By cutting these the water was turned



on to the plain and it flooded the Campagna. In this way the marshes were formed, and the malaria is the pest of the region.

In modern Rome, its great street, the Corso, is broad and well paved ; it is over a mile in length and is lined with beautiful shops and palaces. Most of the streets of Rome are narrow, and the houses badly built and crowded together.

## 29. SOME OTHER TOWNS OF ITALY

Italy is a country of interesting cities. When the Roman Empire was broken up, the country was divided into a great number of small states, and the people of each state tried to make their own chief town more beautiful than the rest.

Naples is the largest city of Italy and one of the loveliest in the world. As we approach it by land from Rome, the road leads us over the southern part of the malarial plain of the Campagna, called the Pontine marshes. Standing on the beautiful Bay of Naples, the city rises from its shores in a matchless panorama of palaces, villas, forests, gardens, vineyards, and mountains.

The approach to the city by the sea is far grander than any approach by land. Vesuvius is seen at once. It is of regular shape, with a dense cloud of steam hanging over it. A climb of less than 4000 feet takes one to the lip of the crater, which is filled with dense smoke and vapour. As these blow aside, bubbling lava, stones, and cinders, all yellow with sulphur, meet the eye. Many terrible eruptions have taken place, but in A.D. 79 the most terrible on record destroyed the beautiful Roman cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii.

So complete was their destruction, that for more than sixteen hundred years their very existence was unsuspected. By excavation, however, Pompeii has been laid bare, and we can to-day walk the streets and enter the houses of this dead city that came to such a terrible end. The destruction was so sudden that the people of these cities were found in the attitudes they were in when the deluge of ashes and lava struck them down. "See Naples and die" is a well-known Italian proverb, which implies that there is nothing more lovely to be seen on earth; but Naples, as a city, does not accord with its beautiful position. The narrow streets and the flat-roofed houses, several stories high, crowded with people not too clean in their habits nor too pleasant to have close dealings with, take away from the pleasure which the glory of the natural beauty arouses in the visitors' minds.

The Neapolitan's home is in the street, and he is the gayest of all the people of Italy. The streets are noisy and full of colour, and are filled with stalls piled up with masses of bright flowers. Naples is making great progress in trade and manufactures, and is feeling the effect of the Suez Canal; for shipping in the port is largely on the increase and the city is the chief naval station of the kingdom. It is well, perhaps, that this spirit of gaiety pervades the people, for, with the constant menace of an eruption from the active Vesuvius, there is need to keep the mind free from apprehension, and the Neapolitans are the right people to do this.

Milan, the capital of Lombardy, is the third city in Italy. It has retained its importance for two thousand years, and has been the leader among the northern cities in their struggle for freedom against the German

emperors. Since 1860 it has belonged to the free Italian kingdom.

Most visitors to Milan go for the sake of its famous cathedral. This is built of white marble, and the outside is adorned with many pinnacles, and 6000 statues



**The Ponte Vecchio, Florence**

stand in its niches. The building of the cathedral occupied 400 years. Owing to its position Milan has been a centre of trade, which has greatly increased since the opening of the St Gothard railway.

Lying to the north of Rome is the beautiful city of Florence, on the banks of the Arno. This "city of

flowers" is famous for much more than its beauty. Its noble palaces, its quaint and picturesque streets, its wonderful churches, the wealth of its art treasures make it a delight for the visitor. The story of the city is long and stormy, and for centuries its streets rang with the noise of battle. But its famous sons are more than leaders in war. Dante, the greatest Italian poet, and greatest of the sons of Florence; Petrarch, another poet of distinction; Michelangelo, painter and architect; and Galileo, the astronomer, are Florentines, who have a world-wide fame.

The Piazza-del-Duomo, "the history haunted square," as Ruskin calls it, is surrounded by a group of buildings unsurpassed in any city in the world. These include the cathedral, the campanile, the splendid belfry, and the baptistry, and all possess a beauty and importance of their own.

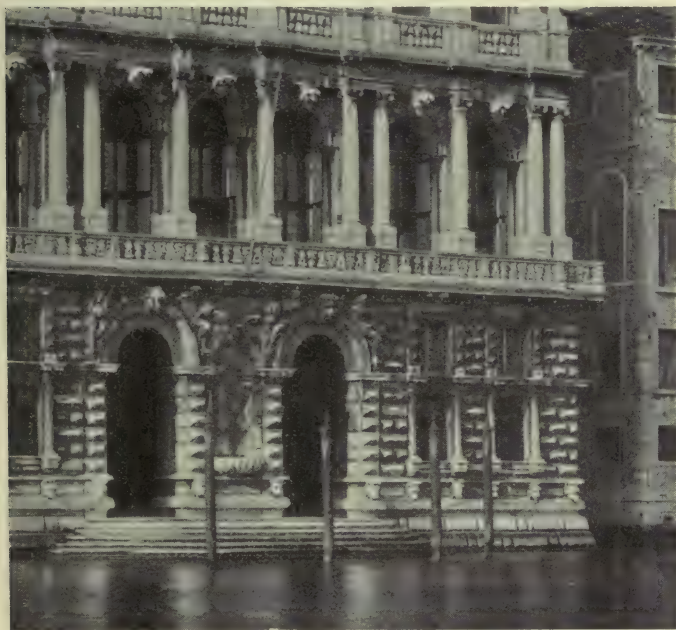
Lower down the Arno stands the town of Pisa, with its famous leaning tower, which is so much out of the upright that a person standing on the ground exactly under its apex would be fourteen feet from the base. Not far away is the seaport of Leghorn, which gives its name to the once fashionable "Leghorn hats."

On the opposite side of the country is Venice. Intersected by canals, spanned by three hundred bridges, its canal streets remind the visitor of Stockholm. The largest canal is the Grand Canal, over two miles in length, and it is crossed by the famous Rialto, the most beautiful bridge in Venice. "It is the most wonderful street in the world; its houses are palaces, its carriages are gondolas, its buses are steamboats, and the waves lap its doorsteps."

More than twelve hundred years ago the people



called the Veneti fled from the barbarian Huns, and built their huts of mud and wattle on the mud-banks in the lagoons at the mouth of the Lido. These people excelled as sailors and traders, and in course of time Venice grew rapidly and formed herself into a republic.



Doorway of a Palace on the Grand Canal, Venice

For centuries prosperity attended her efforts. Her merchants became nobles, and her ruler, called the Doge, was the Duke of Venice. The commerce between Europe and the East passed through this city; wealth flowed into it, and much was used on beautifying it.

Piles driven through the mud until a firm foundation was found enabled the Venetians to build noble palaces and splendid churches, the most famous of which is that of St Mark, the cathedral of Venice. It is one of the wonders of the world, and attracts thousands of visitors to see its great beauty. This cathedral stands in St Mark's Piazza, or square, and here on summer evenings the citizens gather to enjoy the fresh air and to take part in the lively scene. Hundreds of pigeons may be seen in the square, where they are fed at two o'clock every day at the city's expense. Over the porticos of St Mark's are four famous bronze horses. They stood in the first instance in ancient Corinth, but were removed by the Romans first to Rome and then to Constantinople. The Venetians brought them to Venice, but during the French wars Napoleon had them taken to Paris. After an absence of eighteen years, however, they were brought back to their present position on St Mark's. In the late autumn of 1917 the danger of a repetition of the loss of the art treasures and the ruin of this famous city was so great that all hearts for the moment quailed for the safety of Venice. The brave Italian army that had done so much in previous months of the war was driven back to the Piave, and it seemed that Venice itself, which had been subjected to many air raids, would fall a prey to the Austrians. The stand made, however, by the Italians, assisted by the British and French, averted this catastrophe. Italy, too, was saved from being overrun by the enemy and the Allied position from becoming desperate on this front.

Close to the Piazza is the Ducal palace. Leading from the palace to the State prison is the "Bridge of Sighs." Across this bridge many a prisoner has passed,

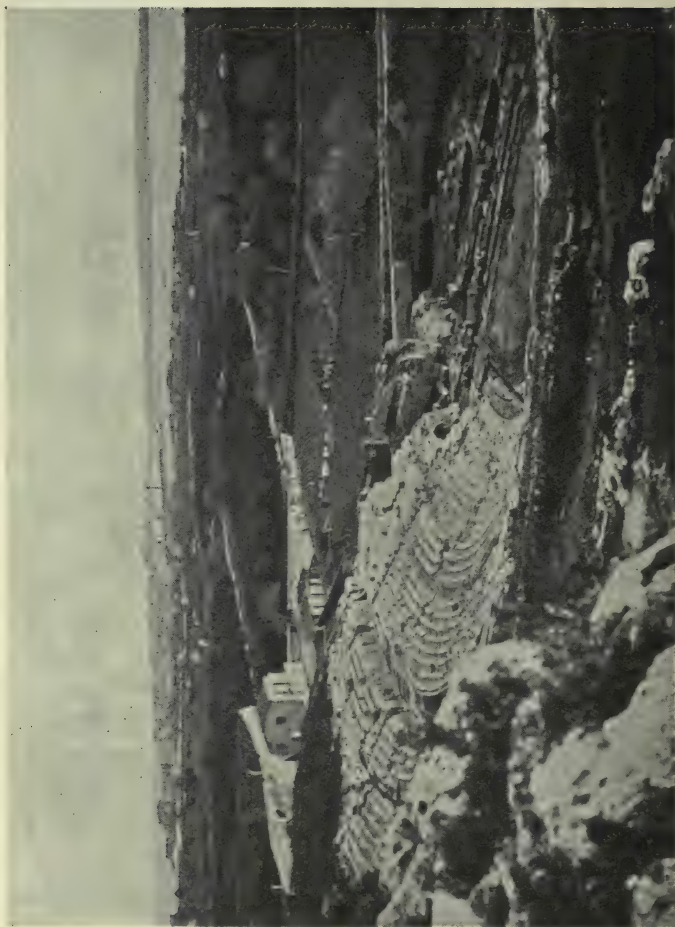
who with sighs of despair took his last look on the world of liberty from the windows of the bridge, for before him lay either a cruel death or a lifelong existence in the gloomy dungeon into which no ray of sunshine entered.

Many other towns of great interest and importance might be mentioned, and among them is Genoa, the birthplace of Columbus. Standing on the gulf of the same name, Genoa is a city of palaces. The splendid buildings were erected when wealth flowed into the city and made its merchants the richest in Europe. But even now it is the first port, and olive oil, silk, fruits, velvet, and marble fill the warehouses, and a great deal of shipping lies at its quays. Near the extremity of the peninsula is Brindisi, an ancient town, but of considerable importance since the establishment of the overland route to India. It is about sixty hours by rail from London, and weekly steamers make the passage to Alexandria in three days.

Sicily is specially interesting as the meeting-ground of East and West, and the place where the struggles of the various races contributing to the civilization of the West have occurred. Palermo, the capital of the island, was the seat of Moslem rule, and few spots in the world are more beautiful. Standing in the midst of a vast forest of fruit trees, on a grand and sheltered bay on the north coast, facing Italy, it carries on its trade in oranges, lemons, dried fruits, wine, and sulphur.

Syracuse, on the east coast, was once the chief town of the Greek world. It has, however, given place to Catania, at the foot of Etna.

Many times has this region suffered from eruptions and earthquakes, but it has always regained its beauty.



Syracuse



Amid all the lovely scenes in Sicily live the most wretched peasantry that Italy, or indeed Europe, can show. The misery and poverty of the labourer are almost beyond description. Brigands infest the island, and altogether the condition of Sicily is in strange contrast to the great part which the island has played in European affairs.

### 30. THE BALKAN STATES

The most easterly of the great peninsulas of southern Europe is the mountainous region of the Balkan peninsula. The Alps make their way round the head of the Adriatic into the peninsula in a series of ranges, running parallel and near to the west coast. These are called the Dinaric Alps in the territory of the newly formed Serb-Croat-Slovene state in the north, and the Pindus range in Greece in the south. The principal mountains, however, are the Balkans, which give their name to the peninsula. These begin at the "Iron Gates," and run first to the south-east, and then eastwards across the country to the Black Sea, the eastern boundary of the peninsula.

Near the middle of the peninsula is the Shar Dagh, reaching to a height of more than 9000 feet. This forms a central mountain mass, from which mountain ranges radiate in all directions. Those running to the south consist of limestone rocks rich in iron, lead, and copper ores, and end in Greece, the extremity of the peninsula.

The gentler slope of the Balkans is to the north, and descends in terraces clad with vines and forests, while in the higher regions they are covered with rich pastures.

The southern face of the mountains is steeper and more abrupt, and most of the passes are mere pony-tracks. In the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-8 the Shipka Pass, the best known, attained a celebrity from the fact that it was held by a few thousand Russians against a Turkish army of 30,000 men.

Between the Balkans and the mountains on the west is the broad valley of the Morava, which flows between the fertile hills of Serbia to the Danube. The southern portion of the valley is continued through the rich plain of Eastern Rumelia, and is watered by the river Maritza, which flows south into the Aegean Sea. In early times this valley was used for the old road, and now it is used by the railway across the peninsula from central Europe to Constantinople.

Lying to the west of the Maritza valley is a large mountain mass, nearly 10,000 feet in height. Between this and the western mountains is the valley of the Vardar, which forms a continuation of the Morava valley in the north. Through this valley the road runs to Salonika, a port on the gulf of the same name. A branch from the Orient railway route to Constantinople proceeds to the coast. In August 1917, when the town was serving as a base for a large Allied force fighting against the Bulgarians, a terrible fire broke out in Salonika and more than 4000 buildings were destroyed and 100,000 people rendered homeless. Steps are in progress to rebuild the city on modern lines which, when carried out, will make it one of the finest cities on the Mediterranean.

Many varieties of climate are found in the Balkan peninsula. The northern portion, exposed to the full force of the winds from the steppes, is bitterly cold in

winter and experiences great heat in summer. Along the west coast, where the influence of the Mediterranean is felt, evergreen shrubs, olives, figs, oranges, and lemons abound, while forests and fruits of central Europe are found farther inland. The wolf and bear are met with in the mountains; the jackal prowls the plains of the south, and the fat-tailed sheep and



Italian troops marching through Salonika

buffaloes of Asiatic breeds are met with among the herds of European cattle.

The many races of Austria-Hungary were but loosely held together before the empire broke up as a result of the war, and at one time the Turks had ruled Hungary. Indeed, they fought under the walls of Vienna, but were unable to take it. The Balkan peninsula is also peopled

by many races professing many religions, and nowhere is there greater unrest or greater strife. After the Turks took Constantinople in 1453 they gradually pressed forward, until their power extended over all the Balkan peninsula and through Hungary.

The tide of their power has gradually rolled back, however, so that European Turkey is now a small state. It is only within recent years that the great shrinkage has taken place, and the Balkan states have been formed independent of Turkish authority. The peoples of these states are Christians, whom the Turks treated with the utmost cruelty.

In 1877 Russia went to war with Turkey on behalf of these down-trodden peoples, many of whom were of the same race and religion as the Russians. Russia completely defeated Turkey, and most of her provinces were either made independent or became parts of a Christian country, by the Treaty of Berlin, which was signed in 1878.

Bosnia and Herzegovina, lying south of the river Save and west of Serbia, were placed under the protection of Austria, and became part of that monarchy in 1908. They have now ceased to be Austrian and form part of larger Serbia.

Bosnia is a beautiful land of mountain ranges and deep valleys, covered with dense forests. The mountains contain iron ores, and silver is found in places; but the chief industry is cattle-rearing. It was at Sarajevo, the capital, that the Archduke Ferdinand and his wife were assassinated in June, 1914; this was made a pretext for Austria to bring about war with Serbia on 28 July, 1914. Herzegovina falls by a series of terraces to the south-west. Hot and dry summers prevail, and



the orange, olive, and vine flourish, where sufficient water is found.

Twenty years ago, under Turkish despotism, only bridle paths existed for travelling, but now good roads and some narrow-gauge railways are spreading, by means of which these states are connected with Hungary.

The little state of Montenegro, lying to the south of



A Montenegrin street-musician

Bosnia, has always maintained its independence against the Turks. It is an elevated, stony, limestone region, forming part of the Karst, with a raw climate, and possessing only a small portion of land suitable for cultivation. By the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 Montenegro added some of the coast region to her territory. Most of the Montenegrins, a tall, powerful, mountain

people, make their living by cattle-rearing, although in the lowlands maize, fruit, and wine are produced.

The part of Serbia east of Bosnia is crossed by ranges of hills, from whose sides numerous streams flow down the fertile valleys into the Danube. The hills and mountains are still covered with dense forests, mostly of oak, ash, beech, and birch. Where these have been cleared, the slopes of the hills are rich with vineyards, and the fields with crops of maize. Villages are dotted about on the borders of the oak and beech forests, and large herds of swine are driven into the woods for pasture. The Serbs are a nation of swineherds, and the pig is the chief animal of the country. The peasants dress in white linen clothes, with red sashes round their waists, and the women wear aprons of brilliant colour. All the peasants wear clumsy sandals and woollen gaiters bound to the legs by leathern thongs.

Although Serbia is the most fertile and densely peopled of the Balkan states, the unrest among the people and their lack of industry prevent any great progress in the country being made. The roads are bad, and the only important railway is that from Belgrade to Nish, on the way to Constantinople and Salonika.

Belgrade, the White City, standing in a splendid position on a hill near the junction of the Save and the Danube, is a strong fortress and the capital of the country. Many battles were fought here in the Turkish wars, and Belgrade suffered bombardments during the late war. It commands the artery of traffic between central Europe and the Balkan peninsula. Viewed from a distance, the white houses of the city have a clean and fresh appearance, but the streets are dirty.

Serbia was the first of the Balkan states to recover its freedom, and at the Berlin Congress its complete independence was secured. Soon after, in 1882, it was declared a kingdom, but the power of the king is limited by the parliament, which is elected by the people.

The neighbour of Serbia on the east is Bulgaria, in which the province of Eastern Rumelia is now included. The Bulgarians were slower than the Serbians in attempting to get free from Turkish misrule, and it was not till 1878 that the Treaty of Berlin gave Bulgaria a government, under the authority of Turkey. This freedom was further extended in 1908, when the ruler, Prince Ferdinand, declared Bulgaria an independent kingdom. In 1912 Bulgaria and Serbia joined forces with Greece against Turkey. So successful were they that in a few months the Turks were utterly defeated. Bulgaria, however, was dissatisfied with the territory gained by the war, and attacked Serbia and Greece, by whom she was defeated in 1913. In October 1915 the Austro-German forces made an attack on Serbia, and on 5 November the Bulgarians, who had joined them, captured Nish. Serbia's defence was annihilated and the remnant of her army took refuge in the mountains of Montenegro and Albania.

With the failure of the Germans in France in September, 1918, Bulgaria, which had suffered reverses at the hands of the Allies, saw that there was no prospect of further assistance from Germany and sued for an armistice. This was agreed to on 30 September. By the Peace of Versailles Bulgaria has lost most of the territory gained by her efforts in 1912.

The Danube divides Bulgaria from Rumania in the north, except the district of the Dobruja, given by the



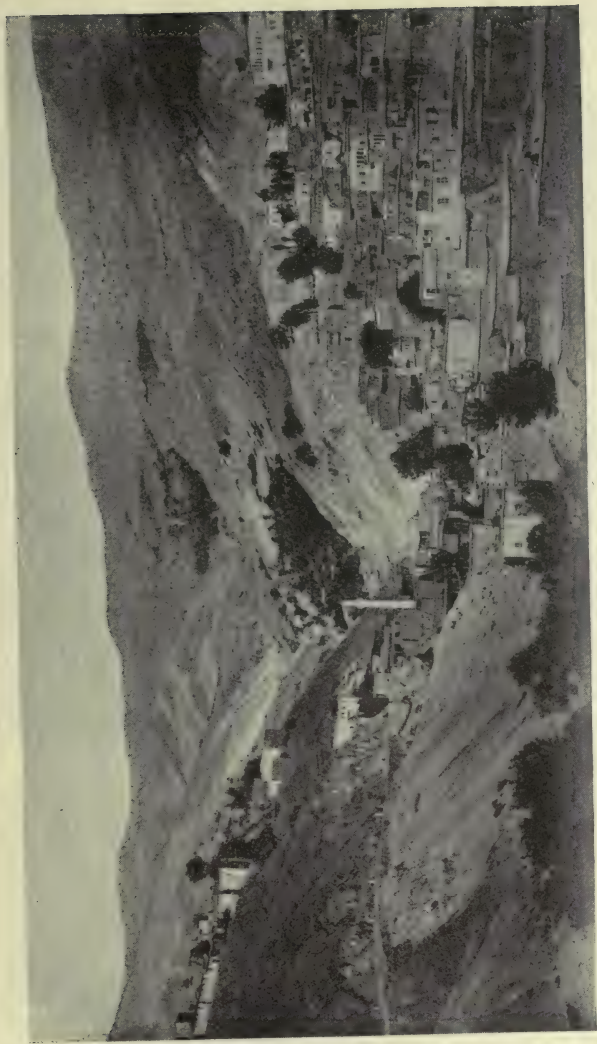
Treaty of Bucharest in 1913 and the hills in the south form the frontier between Rumelia and Turkey. The land between the Balkans and the Danube is a plateau with fertile soil, well adapted for grain-growing. Here the peasant tills his farm and tends his cattle, whilst his wife spins wool and weaves cloth for the garments of the family. The villages are very self-contained, for the Bulgars produce at home almost all they need. The winters are severe, and both men and women wear sheep-skin jackets, with the wool turned inside and the outside prettily embroidered. Their houses are strongly built of timber or stone. On the ground-floor the cattle are housed at night, while the rooms above serve the needs of the family.

Sofia is the capital of Bulgaria, and Varna on the Black Sea is a busy port. Philippopolis, in Eastern Rumelia, stands in a region of lovely rose gardens. The roses are grown for the delightful perfume called attar, or otto, of roses, which is extracted from them.

Across the Danube from Bulgaria lies Rumania, stretching from the Karpathians to the Black Sea. The plain, extending away north from the Danube, is so rich that large quantities of grain are exported in spite of the fact that the Rumanians are not good farmers. In the hill zone, fruit and excellent wine are produced, while in the mountains cattle-rearing and forestry are carried on. The climate, as well as the soil, belongs to the region of the Russian steppes. The winters are very cold and the heat of summer is very great. Much of the work is done by women, who work in the fields, and they may be seen doing the work of navvies, making roads and railway embankments.

Many efforts have been made, from time to time, by





A pass on the frontier between Turkey and E. Rumelia

the Rumanians to secure their freedom, but it was not until 1878 that the country became independent of Turkey. In the Balkan wars of 1912-13 Rumania took no part, but received the territory of the Dobruja for remaining neutral. It was not until August, 1916, that Rumania came into the European conflict on the side of the Entente. In a few months, however, the country was overrun by the troops of the Central Empires and lay "crushed beneath the heel of a pitiless conqueror." The position of affairs in Russia made further resistance impossible, and a humiliating peace was the result. Rumania could then only bear her misfortune, and wait for the final victory of her Allies to free the country. The Supreme Council in Paris awarded Rumania the province of Transylvania, and the Rumanians in this late Austrian territory are united with their kinsfolk.

The capital is Bucharest—the City of Pleasure. This town has quite a Western appearance, and is one of the most elegant cities in the south of Europe. The polished plates of metal with which many of the church domes are covered glitter in the sunshine and form a striking feature as they rise from the many masses of green foliage.

### 31. TURKEY AND ITS CAPITAL

The once great Ottoman Empire in Europe, which included the Balkan peninsula and Hungary, is now reduced to a small territory along the northern shores of the Sea of Marmora and the Aegean Sea. Connecting

these two seas is the narrow, strongly fortified strait of the Dardanelles, a piece of water of the greatest importance in the affairs of Eastern Europe. This is now to become an open waterway, free for the commerce of the world. At the eastern end of this sea is the Bosphorus, which opens into the Black Sea.

The Bosphorus is like a winding river, whose sides display some of the most beautiful scenery in the world. Along its steep-wooded shores, rising to a level-topped plateau on both sides, are palaces, castles, towns, and the summer residences of the rich merchants of Constantinople. A strong tide sets in from the Black Sea, and the strait is more than deep enough for the largest vessels. The Bosphorus is alive with ships of all nations, and small steamers ply upon its waters between the villages on its shores. At the southern end is the world-famous city of Constantinople, which surrounds the curved inlet of the Golden Horn, a magnificent harbour, near which the ancient city of Byzantium was founded by the Greeks about 700 B.C. The name was changed to Constantinople by the Roman Emperor Constantine, who made it the eastern capital of the Roman Empire.

Seen from the sea, the red-tiled roofs of the houses, the cupolas of the countless mosques, the tapering minarets, tipped with gold, that rise in all directions, form a striking picture. In the Middle Ages the city was the richest and most splendid in the world, and was the great meeting-place of East and West. The glory of those days is still recalled by the church of St Sophia, now a Mohammedan Mosque, by the city walls, which stretch along the whole frontage of the city on the Sea of Marmora, and by many other monuments of Constantinople's former greatness.

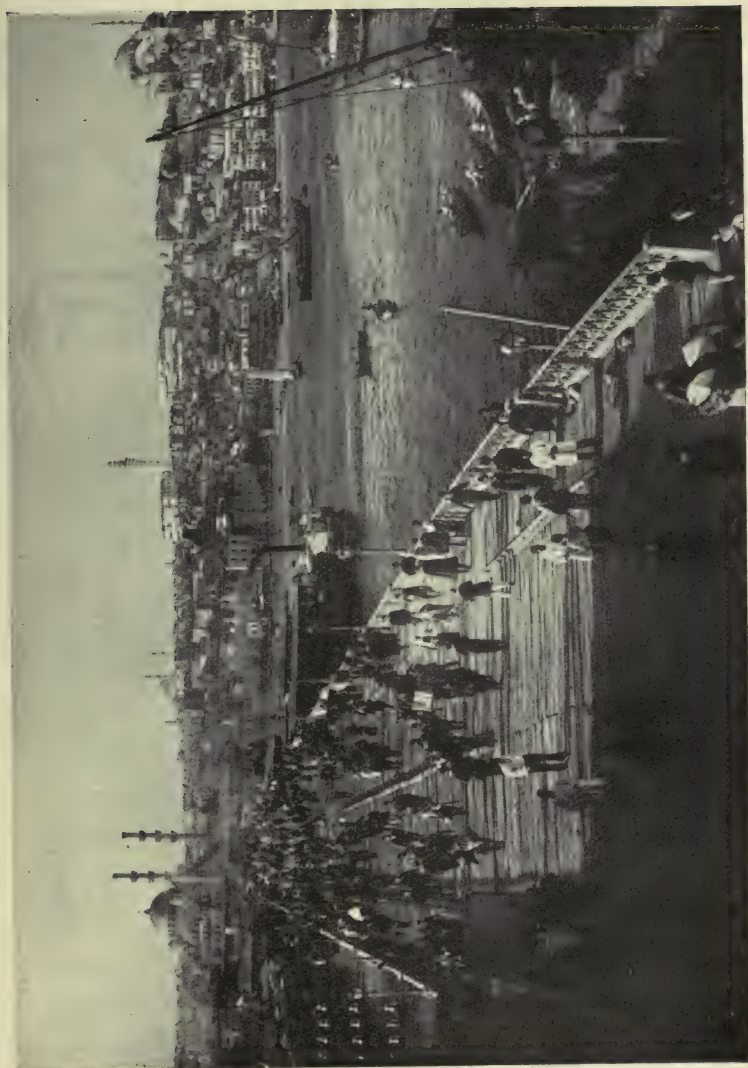
The fine spectacle of Constantinople, when viewed from the sea, is one of disappointment to the traveller who explores the city itself. The streets are crooked, narrow, dirty, and ill-paved. Many of the houses are squalid and dirty in the extreme.

When the Turks conquered the city in 1453, they changed the name to Stamboul. The ancient part of the present city, still retaining this name, is entirely inhabited by Mohammedans, and, when seen from the water, is very beautiful. Crowded bridges span the Golden Horn, and over the Galata bridge, which joins Stamboul with the Galata quarter, where the European ambassadors reside and rich merchants do business, no less than twenty million persons pass in the course of a year. Pera and Galata, on the northern side of the Golden Horn, are quite European in appearance and form the modern commercial part of the city.

One of the features of the Stamboul portion of the city is its bazaars, where articles of every description are offered for sale, and where people from every nation in Europe and Asia are to be met with. These bazaars form quite a maze of streets and alleys, whose windings are so intricate that it is easy to lose one's way. In the heart of the bazaar is an inner one, where gorgeous carpets from all parts of the land, diamonds, pearls, and all kinds of precious stones, old armour, and curios are for sale. We might linger long in the bazaars, but the voice of the "muezzin," or crier, who calls the Mohammedan to prayer, sounds through the streets, for the sun is setting and the gates are to be closed.

On the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus is Scutari, which is entirely Turkish, and is reckoned part of the capital.





Constantinople

Adrianople is another important city. It is a busy town, standing on a plain, famous for its rose gardens, and is the most important military position in the country.

Turkey in Europe has been growing weaker for many years, and only the jealousy of the Great Powers has held it together. The European portion now forms but a fringe of the great Ottoman Empire, which extended from the Black Sea to the Persian Gulf in Asia. But even in Asia large portions have been taken from Turkey by Russia, and, in Africa, Egypt has been only Turkish in name, and is now a protectorate of Britain.

Many changes have taken place in the methods of Turkish government, but it was not till 1908 that the world was startled by the announcement that the Sultan, who for so many years had been a despotic monarch, had accepted a form of government of a constitutional kind. All races and religions were to be granted equal rights, and, for the first time in the history of the country, were expected to take equal shares in military service. The hopes of the Western Countries were raised by this; but they were doomed to disappointment. The Young Turks, who had brought this about, soon proved that they were Turks first and reformers afterwards. Thousands of Christians were massacred in Asia Minor, and the horrors of the past were repeated under the new government.

### 32. GREECE AND HER PEOPLE

The little country of Greece is the southernmost part of the Balkan peninsula. Its coast, broken by innumerable bays and gulfs, is jagged and mountainous, and on the east and south are countless islands, so that a sailor passing from Greece across the Aegean Sea has land always in sight. The surface is very mountainous, and the mountains are continued to the rocky headland of Cape Matapan, its southern limit.

The Pindus range runs through the country, and, after sinking out of sight at the Gulf of Corinth, reappears in the Peloponnesus, the southern part of the country. In this range is the famous, double-pointed mount Parnassus. This has been the subject of song both of ancient and modern poets, who have regarded it as the sacred abode of the Muses, those nine goddesses who encouraged and cultivated the drama, the dance, and the arts and sciences. Several mountain masses stand quite apart from the central range, many of which have great historical interest. Mount Olympus, in north-eastern Greece, was considered by the Greek as the home of the gods, and in consequence was regarded as a sacred mountain. The narrow valleys and a few strips of the coast are the only low-lying land in the country. Wild mountains and barren plateaux rise close to fertile plains and tranquil inlets of the sea. This gives great variety and beauty to the landscape, and is favourable for sea-faring—a fact that accounts for the Greeks being a noted sea-faring people.

Greece has a varied climate and enjoys the typical Mediterranean character—hot, dry, and almost rainless

summers, with warm and rainy winters, although frost and snow are not quite unknown. Greece, too, is noted for its deep blue, cloudless skies and the purity and clearness of its atmosphere. Agriculture is the chief industry, and, like most Mediterranean countries, Greece produces such fruits as the olive, melons, figs, and grapes. One fruit, grown to perfection around the Gulf of Corinth and on the islands, is a small-fruited, seedless grape. This gets its name of currant from the town of Corinth, whence it is exported.

After agriculture, shipping is the most important industry; for the Greeks have for more than two thousand years been bold and skilful seamen. They are great traders, and since the country has become independent, the Greeks have increased their commerce by making good roads and some railways, although no railway enters Greece from the Turkish dominions.

The manufactures of the country are few and unimportant, and are merely connected with the home-trade needs. Thus Greece makes all her packing-cases from wood felled in her forests, and the making of boots and shoes, well cut and of good leather, occupies some of the people. A few of these are of Western pattern, but most are typically Greek—red shoes with black pompoms. Other articles made for home use are the earthenware amphorae or water-jugs. These are made from the same kind of clay as was used for the beautiful ancient Greek vases more than two thousand years ago. Mining is of little importance, but some ores, such as lead and zinc, are exported. At Naxos, an island in the Aegean Sea, the emery mines are very valuable, and it is from this island that we get the emery used for scouring steel goods.



The most important mineral, however, is marble. To the finely-grained and richly-veined varieties much of the beauty of old Greek building is due. Several of the most important quarries in Greece to-day were worked by the ancients, and the supply seems never in danger of being exhausted. The finest grained and purest white variety is found in the island of Paros, from which it takes the name of Parian marble. In olden days the marble was hewn with great labour by slaves, but new methods are now used to procure it.

The story of Greece is full of interest. Passing by the Heroic Age, to which we owe such famous Greek stories as that of Perseus and the Gorgon, we come to the time when Greece was occupied by many states, warring against each other. Tracing their descent from a common father, Hellen, they began to call themselves by a common name, the Hellenes, and to speak of all other nations as "barbarians." Proud of their race, the Hellenes, who were daring adventurers and colonists, called all the lands in which their kindred lived Hellas. Greeks are now found, far and wide, in Asia and in Europe, in the coast lands and islands of the Aegean Sea.

The most formidable barbarian foe to challenge the power of Hellas were the Persians, and in the course of checking their invasions the Hellenes won two of the most famous battles in the world's history—the battle of Marathon in 490 B.C. and the naval battle of Salamis, ten years later.

If Xerxes, the Persian king, was victorious in the end, defeat was more glorious for the Greeks than this success was for him. The pass of Thermopylae was held by three hundred Spartans against the Persian

millions, but a traitor among the Greeks showed Xerxes a way through the mountains, so that he could attack the Spartans in the rear. The three hundred died where they stood, rather than yield, and thereby made a name that will never die.

When this danger had passed, Sparta and Athens came to open warfare. Sparta, as the great military



The pass of Thermopylae

power, and Athens, as the centre of learning and literature and the great naval power, were in conflict for twenty years, when Athens was completely defeated. But later all the states were forced to yield to Alexander the Great of Macedonia, who, by the aid of Greeks and Macedonians, conquered Persia and set up the great Macedonian Empire. On his way to conquer Persia

he founded the famous city of Alexandria. His great empire, however, soon fell to pieces after his death, and the Romans had no great difficulty in making themselves masters of Hellas, the name of which they changed to Greece. So much, however, did the Romans admire and honour Greek learning and literature that they took the Greeks for their masters and models, and so it has been said "captive Greece conquered her conquerors."

When the Roman Empire broke up into its Eastern and Western parts, the Eastern capital was fixed at Constantinople, and, later, Greek became the language of the Empire. The Eastern Empire, and with it Greece, went down before the Turks from Asia, and was for nearly 400 years under the sway of Turkey. The tyranny of the Turks reduced the Greeks to a sorry plight, and the sons of this noble race fell into a state of slavery. But the spirit of old Hellas at length arose, bidding the modern Greeks throw off the Turkish yoke. All the old love of freedom, the patriotism, and the passion for adventure of the ancient Heroes and Hellenes flamed up, and in 1821 they rose in arms to fight to the death in a war of independence.

By 1830 Greece was declared an independent and sovereign state. But the Greeks were not left to fight single-handed, for in the struggle of this Christian people against Mohammedanism the allied forces of English, French, and Russians destroyed the Turkish fleet in the battle of Navarino in 1827.

The Greeks are scattered all over the islands and coasts of the Balkan peninsula, and although they cannot claim anything like the distinction which characterised the ancient Hellenes, yet in modern Greece education is

well cared for, and the inhabitants are better educated than in any other part of eastern or southern Europe.

The country has a free constitutional monarchy, with a parliament chosen by the people. Although the strife of the various parties in the state does serious harm, yet, since the Greeks became independent, they have made great progress. No one in recent years has done so much to promote the true interests of Greece as the far-seeing statesman, Venizelos. When Austria began war with Serbia on 28 July, 1914, he desired to help Serbia, but was thwarted by King Constantine. Under the plea of remaining neutral, but really in order to help Germany, Constantine frustrated every effort of Venizelos to bring Greece to fulfil her pledge to Serbia. This opposition continued until the king was called upon by the Allies to abdicate on 11 June, 1917. He was succeeded by his son Alexander, and Greece, under the guidance of her great statesman, at the end of June 1917 definitely joined the Allies, and from that time rendered valuable and whole-hearted service to their cause.

### 33. FAMOUS CITIES OF GREECE

Nearly all the cities of ancient Greece were on the sea-coast. On the west side of the Aegean Sea was Athens; near the isthmus of Corinth, through which a ship canal has been cut, was Corinth; and in the Morea was Sparta.

The mere mention of Athens revives memories of the glory of ancient Greece, and reminds us that there is nothing that men have done in literature, in art, or in



philosophy but owes its debt of gratitude to the men of this city. The visitor to the city of Athens is full of expectation, but the first impression on alighting at the mean little station is one of surprise and disappointment.

Athens of to-day has a double existence, the ancient and the modern city. The ancient city raised itself in the fifth century B.C. to be the leader of Greece, and established its position as the mother of Greek art and learning. The modern city, with its two large squares, good streets, splendid houses and hotels, and its fine public buildings, has sprung up since 1824, when Athens, then only a poor village with a few hundred houses, was chosen by modern Greece as her new seat of government.

The city stands on a small plain that opens on the south-west to the Aegean Sea, but on the other sides is surrounded by limestone mountains that rise to a height of between three and four thousand feet. One of the hills rising from the plain is the square, precipitous, limestone rock of the Acropolis. This was the ancient Athenian citadel, and round the foot of the Acropolis are many perfect remains and magnificent ruins of the old city.

The modern Athens has grown up to the north and north-east of the old city, and in its short life has already spread out over a wide area. The zig-zag climb to the top of the Acropolis is a tiring business, but when he steps on the flat summit, the climber has his reward. Here stands the Parthenon, erected in 450 B.C., and celebrated as the most beautiful of all the Greek buildings. The decoration of this building was entrusted to the sculptor Phidias, the excellence of whose work won for him everlasting fame. Some of the most

beautiful sculptures which once adorned the Parthenon are now in the British Museum, and these, known as the "Elgin marbles" from Lord Elgin, who brought them to England, give us some idea of the exquisite beauty of the work.

To the west of the Acropolis, lying on the other side of a hollow, is the Areopagus, or "Hill of Mars,"



**The Acropolis and the Odeion, Athens**

where St Paul preached to the Athenians and discussed questions of religion with the great council that was so powerful in Greek affairs in those early times. But great memories are associated with every valley and every hill around Athens, and every ruin with some great event or some great life. Here Socrates taught, was condemned to death, and drank the cup of hemlock.

It was here, too, that Demosthenes, the orator, addressed the people, and Plato taught his profound philosophy, which is a subject of study to-day.

The inborn builder's instinct was one of nature's greatest gifts to the nation; but other and greater builders had gone before the Greek or Hellenic artists. These were the Mycenaean craftsmen, who were at work more than three thousand years before the Hellenes rose to power. They were sons of a rich and mighty kingdom, of which the chief towns, such as Mycenae, lay in the district between the Gulfs of Corinth and Nauplia.

From these old Mycenaeanes it is believed the Greeks were descended, and the Mycenaeanes themselves are thought to be the descendants of a still more powerful and cultivated nation, which had its abode in the island of Crete, lying to the south of Greece. The Cretan builders must have had wonderful skill, for the vast buildings which have been unearthed show that they possessed much knowledge, and although their work is more than four thousand years old, nothing in modern architecture has excelled it. Though it is not possible to show how the great work of Cretan, Mycenaean, and Greek builders is connected in one continuous story, yet we may rest assured that the Greeks learned something from the great artists who had gone before them. Perhaps one day the connection of their works may be made quite plain.

It is less than twenty years ago that much of the work of these ancient builders was buried and out of sight; but many nations have entered into the quest and supplied the men and the money for bringing to light the treasures of sculpture, metal work, and other examples of these master-builders.



Before we leave Athens we must look at the Theatre of Dionysius, where the dramatic performances took place. They were played in the day-time and lasted many hours. Here vast crowds, sometimes 20,000 in number, gathered to witness the plays of the great Greek dramatists.

The new city is very different from ancient Athens, and has quite a western air about it. Trams run in the broad streets, shops display French goods, and many of the people are dressed like those with whom we are familiar at home.

The greatest interest in Greek cities lies in the past. Corinth was once the rival of Athens in magnificence, wealth, and trade, and had a population of 300,000. Founded more than thirteen hundred years B.C., it was completely destroyed by the Romans in 146 B.C., but Julius Caesar rebuilt it a century later. When under Turkish rule it made no progress, but from the time of being freed from their tyranny in 1824 until 1858 Corinth was slowly increasing. In the latter year it was destroyed by an earthquake, and modern Corinth is now three miles from the ancient site in a more convenient position.

Ancient Sparta was the chief city of the Peloponnesus. It was the capital of the region that produced men of iron nerve, who submitted to the severest forms of discipline. Nothing was too difficult or too exacting, and the qualities of the Spartans have come down to our own times in the name "Spartan," which implies all that is rigorous and severe, in the form of brave actions or laborious feats of strength. For some centuries another city took the place of Sparta, but in the early years of last century a new Sparta rose, part of which



is built on the site of the old city, and it is once again the chief city of southern Greece.

Of modern towns, after Athens, Patras and Nauplia are the chief centres of trade; both are fortified, and from Patras, the great currant port of Greece, the largest supplies of this fruit are shipped for foreign lands, where it is in great demand, although in Greece itself currants have not been much used.

#### 34. THE NORTHERN STATES OF AFRICA

The north of Africa is occupied by Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, Tripoli, and Egypt, which border on the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, and stretch away inland, with no very definite boundaries, into the great desert region of the Sahara. The first four are known as the Barbary States, from the Berbers, who form the bulk of the native tribes. The whole of north Africa was rapidly overrun by the Mohammedan power; but though that religion is still almost universal, various European powers have gradually extended their authority over that of the native rulers.

Thus Egypt is a British protectorate; Algeria is the most important colony of France, and one of the most civilised portions of the continent; Tunis is also under French protection, though it is ruled by a native bey; the northern portion of Morocco, nearest to Spain, and the southern part of the Atlantic coast are claimed as the Spanish sphere of influence, and the French claim the rest as theirs; while Italy has recently brought Tripoli under her rule.

The Sultan of Morocco, the "Prince of True Believers," according to his native title, and a descendant of the uncle of the Prophet of Islam, is still the despotic ruler of that state. But his power over some of the tribes, especially in the desert borderland, is shadowy.

A short run from Gibraltar across the Strait to Tangier, or a visit to any of the ports of Morocco, opens to the visitor a new world. The stately Moors, with their swarthy complexions and flowing robes, the houses, dazzlingly white under the glaring sunshine, the busy market-places, with the many-hued garments of the buyers and sellers of fruit and other produce, all combine to make scenes of wonderful interest.

Yet Morocco is only now emerging from barbarism. Even in the streets of the seaports scowling looks and muttered curses at the sight of a Christian are not unknown, and in the interior neither property nor life is safe in many places. A large part of the country is naturally fertile, and it is known that the interior, though little explored, has rich deposits of copper, iron, lead, and other metals, including silver and gold, and of petroleum. Yet little has been done to work them, although European companies have been formed for the purpose.

Spaniards making a railway line to some mines near Melilla in 1909 were attacked by the natives, and a large Spanish force had to be sent over before order was restored. This was only one of several cases in which European powers have had to interfere in recent years. So lately as 1910 Berber and other tribes besieged the Sultan in his own capital, Fez, intending to place his brother on the throne, and the former had to appeal to France for a force to save him and the

Europeans in the city from the danger which threatened them.

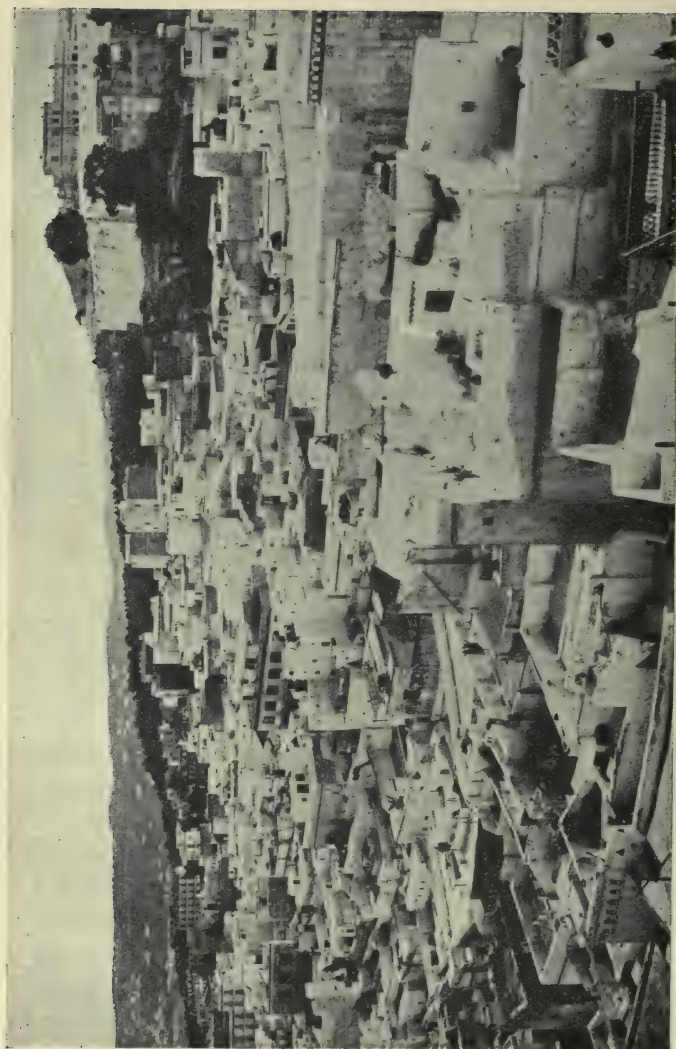
Although a regular trade is carried on with the ports, yet a vessel so unfortunate as to run ashore along the coast would be remorselessly plundered. From what has already been said of the fierce and turbulent character of the Moors, it is not surprising that Morocco, in spite of its nearness to Europe, is very little known. The native industries in richly-woven silks, woollens, and embroideries have almost died out. Fez gave its name to the caps so largely worn by Moslems, and Morocco to a thin, soft kind of leather, but both manufactures have lost their former importance.

Tangier has long been an important port, and Casablanca, the chief centre of French influence, now rivals it. Two other ports are Mazagan and Mogador. Cottons, sugar, and tea are among the chief imports, while hides and skins, oxen, eggs, wool, barley, almonds, and slippers are exported.

The French government, which makes laws for Algeria, is represented in that colony by a Governor-General, whose residence is at Algiers, the capital. Not more than a century ago Algiers had a terrible reputation, for it was, as it had long been, the headquarters of as cruel and ferocious a horde of pirates as could well be imagined. They were the pest of the Mediterranean, and many are the stories on record of the cruelty they practised on the Christian crews and passengers of the ships they captured. Those who were not slaughtered were doomed to a miserable captivity, many of them as galley-slaves.

So lately as 1816 Algiers was bombarded by a British fleet, and the ruler, the Dey, was forced to release the





Algiers



Christians he held in bondage. In 1830 the town was again bombarded, by the French and captured, piracy being put down there once and for all by the annexation of the country.

The change brought about since then is remarkable ; peace and prosperity have been established, and many of the towns and villages are quite French in appearance. The country has been opened up by good roads and railways, unhealthy districts have been drained, trees, such as the Australian eucalyptus or blue-gum, have been planted, and water has been obtained in dry regions by Artesian wells. The Kabyles, as the Berbers of Algeria are called, have largely adopted a settled life in place of their old nomadic habits. Three-fifths of the people are now engaged in agriculture.

Algeria is becoming quite an important wine-producing country, and the orange, date, citron, banana, pomegranate, fig, almond, and other fruits are abundant. Forests of cedars and cork-oak cover large areas, and great numbers of olive trees are grown. Wheat, barley, sheep, and fruit are the chief exports after wine, and esparto grass is exported for paper-making. Sardine, anchovy, and tunny fishing is carried on along the coast. A number of zinc, iron, copper, antimony, and other mines are also worked. The chief trade, naturally, is with France.

Algiers is an interesting and picturesque town on the coast, and an important coaling station for ships. The old part, where the Arabs dwell, has the narrow, dirty streets and the blank-looking houses, with almost windowless walls and strongly-barred gates, common to Moslem towns. The modern, or French, portion has fine streets and open spaces, with handsome public buildings.

In the whole colony there are about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  millions of people, of whom 800,000 are Europeans, chiefly French.

In the region of the Atlas mountains, which form the backbone of both Algeria and Morocco, the tribes are much less under French influence, and live their old pastoral life, owning large flocks of sheep and goats. One striking feature of Algeria, as of Morocco, is the delightful climate during the greater part of the year, which attracts numbers of Europeans to pass the winter there.

Tunis, the smallest of the states of the northern coast, occupies the projecting part of the continent nearest to Sicily. The population, which includes a large number of Italians and French, is under two millions, of which the capital, the city of Tunis, claims a quarter of a million. The city is not actually on the sea-coast, but a canal enables it to be reached by ocean-going vessels.

In general features Tunis resembles Algeria, the climate, soil, and productions being very similar. Phosphates, so much used for artificial manure and other purposes, are the most valuable export, though the bulk of the people are engaged in agriculture. Wheat, barley, and oats are grown; olive-oil is a very important product; esparto grass is largely exported; and the mines produce zinc, lead, and iron. Wine, too, as in Algeria, is produced in large quantities. One curious feature is a large district, west of the Gulf of Gabes, below sea-level, with numerous shallow salt lakes, called "shots."

The chief native industries are the spinning and weaving of wool for garments, carpet-weaving, leather embroidery, saddle-making, and the manufacture of

slippers and pottery, in which little change has been made from ancient times. As in the neighbouring state, fruits are abundant, and in the oases of the desert region there are large numbers of date palms. Cork trees abound in the forests of the hill region. Roads, railways, and telegraphs are playing their part in opening up the country. Kairwan is one of the sacred cities of the Mohammedans, while Susa and Sfax are the chief ports.

Near Tunis are the ruins of Carthage, one of the famous cities of the ancient world, and once the rival of Rome and the mistress of the seas. It was founded by the Phoenicians of Tyre, eight centuries before the Christian era, and rose, through commerce, to vast wealth and power. When the great struggle with Rome came in the third century B.C., Carthage produced one of the most famous generals of all time in Hannibal. When only nine years old, Hannibal was made by his father, Hamilcar, a renowned warrior, to swear at the altar undying hatred towards Rome.

His great feat was to cross the Alps with a large army into Italy, a feat accomplished by only one other general, the great Napoleon. Time after time he defeated the Romans and ravaged the country at his will, but he was unable to capture the city. His brother Hasdrubal, a worthy member of this famous family, came to his assistance, but was surprised and defeated on the way. He died fighting valiantly, and his head was thrown into the camp of Hannibal, to announce the result of the battle. The latter recognised, as he sadly exclaimed, "the doom of Carthage," and soon returned home, after maintaining his army in a hostile country for fifteen years, during which the Romans lost 300,000



men. The later city of Carthage, built near the original site by the Romans, was destroyed by the Arabs in the seventh century, and only a few ruins now mark the spot.

Tripoli, though it covers a large area, has few fertile parts, and these resemble the countries already described. The desert in some places reaches the shore of the Mediterranean. The scanty products include barley, the chief food of the people, wheat, dates (in the oases scattered through the desert), oranges and lemons, esparto grass, and sponges. Tripoli is the only seaport, and part of its trade is due to caravans, which make a three-months' journey to the Sahara, bringing ostrich feathers, gold-dust, ivory, and other valuable goods, though often suffering from the attacks of raiders. Most of the feathers reach Paris and London.

Like Carthage, Tripoli was founded by the Phoenicians, and at a later time fell into the hands of the Romans. It was a prosperous city, but when the Mohammedan power fell like a blight upon northern Africa there was an end of prosperity and progress.

### 35. EGYPT

We shall now turn our steps farther east, to learn something of the land so closely associated with the Bible story of the Hebrews.

Egypt, the home of one of the earliest of the civilisations of mankind, consists of the long, narrow, valley of the Nile. It has been well said that "Egypt is the gift of the Nile," for without this river the narrow strip of fertility, sunk between the edges of desert tableland on



both banks, and varying from three or four to twenty miles in width, would have been unable to exist.

By looking at the map it will be seen that the Nile is one of the largest rivers in the world; but we shall be concerned only with the lower portion of its valley. It is easy to understand why this land should be so well fitted to supply the wants of an agricultural people like the Egyptians. Egypt is a land with hot sunshine,



The second cataract on the Nile

abundance of water, and a rich black soil. Although rain seldom falls in Egypt, the annual flooding of the Nile valley provides the moisture required for successful cultivation, and the river itself supplies a waterway for the people to move to and fro in the land.

Shut in on either side by the desert, the only means of entrance to the Nile valley was at the Mediterranean end, or from the land of Abyssinia on the south, by way

of the Nile itself. About the middle of its course through the Sahara, a bar of rock crosses the river, and here its navigation is stopped, for the water rushes over the rock in a tumultuous cataract. There are other cataracts farther up the river, until we reach the sixth at Khartoum. This cataract, called the first, was a splendid defence against foes who might try to enter Egypt at its southern end. Of the seven mouths by which the Nile entered the Mediterranean, only two remain open. The marshes and lagoons prevented enemies from easily entering the country from the sea.

Thus Egypt, possessed of such great natural advantages as hot sunshine, fertile soil, a navigable river, and a freedom from the dread of invasion, found it easy to develop its own life, and set up a civilisation thousands of years before the birth of Christ.

The Egyptians made the most of their opportunities. Every bit of land created out of the desert by the black, fertile soil, brought down by the Nile from the Abyssinian highlands, was cultivated. Magnificent cities, built on the edge of the desert (for land could not be spared from cultivation) were numerous.

Two of these cities of ancient Egypt claim our attention. Memphis is situated near the head of the delta at the spot where the various streams begin to separate. Just within the desert, near Memphis, are the Pyramids, tombs of the ancient kings. From their summits the desert may be seen stretching away towards the west; and below to the east is the Nile valley, with its green or ripened crops, or flooded by water from the melted snows of Abyssinia, according to the season when the visit is made.

Thebes, the second wonder of ancient Egypt, lies a

little more than half-way between Memphis and the first cataract. What the Pyramids were to Memphis, the colossal figures of the kings were to Thebes. "The ground is strewn with their fragments: there were avenues of them towering high above plain and houses. Three of gigantic size still remain. One was the statue of Rameses himself, who sat on the right of the entrance to his palace. By some extraordinary catastrophe, the statue has been thrown down, and the Arabs have scooped their millstones out of his face, but it is still the largest statue in the world."

The Egyptians were not a sea-going race, and when the Greeks came from the Aegean and conquered the country, they built a new capital and called it Alexandria, after their great leader, Alexander the Great. Memphis and Thebes are ruined cities, but Alexandria is the chief port of Egypt to-day. Centuries passed away, and an army of Saracens from Arabia came by way of the isthmus of Suez, and again Egypt was conquered. Like the Greeks, these conquerors built a new capital. This was Cairo, on the east or right bank of the Nile, at the end of the desert way from Suez, and not far from Memphis. Cairo is the capital of modern Egypt, but its character is mainly Arabic, although European styles of architecture have become more and more prevalent. The trade of Cairo is large, and the bazaars and markets are numerous; and there are more than 400 mosques in the city. Under the rule of the Mohammedans Egypt fell into a state of barbarism and great disorder. This continued for centuries; but when the Suez Canal was made in 1869, it became necessary that order should be restored so that this great highway of the world, not a hundred miles from Cairo, might not be interfered with.

To secure this end, Egypt has been occupied by the British, although it is still under its own Mohammedan ruler. The British occupation of Egypt was opposed by France, by Russia, and by Turkey, for it formed part of the Ottoman Empire. The Egyptian people have, however, made great advance under British control. Railways have been constructed; but perhaps the greatest work of all was the construction of the great dam across the Nile, so that for 100 miles above the first cataract



Native canoe on the Nile

the water is kept back for spring and winter use instead of being allowed to run to waste. As a result of this great undertaking much more land has been brought under cultivation, and new and valuable crops, such as cotton, have been introduced.

Egypt has three seasons, each with its own peculiar vegetable productions. In winter, as the Nile is falling, wheat, barley, clover, and peas are grown. In summer the value of the great dam is seen; irrigation is now



possible, and in its wake crops of cotton, fruits, and vegetables flourish. Autumn is the time of full flood, when maize, millet, and rice are successfully cultivated.

Egypt has been a source of anxiety to Britain from the outbreak of the Great War in August, 1914. The British government, during her control of the affairs of the country, had still recognised the Sultan of Turkey as overlord of Egypt; but when the Turks threw in their lot with the Central Powers, at the end of October, it was evident that there would be conflict over Egypt. The Khedive, the Sultan's representative in Egypt, had turned traitor to Britain and was deposed. On December 17, 1914, the announcement was made that Egypt henceforth was to be a British protectorate.

A new ruler, Hussein Kamil, a strong supporter of Britain and the Allied cause, was made the native ruler, under the new title of Sultan of Egypt. The deposition of the Sultan of Turkey's representative, and the hope that those who had shown discontent with British rule would rise against it, caused the Turks to make an attack upon the Suez Canal. Their efforts, however, were unsuccessful, and out of this Turkish failure grew the great and masterly campaign of the Allies, led to a triumphant finish in Palestine and northern Syria by General Allenby, in which Turkey was utterly defeated and ceased to be any effective help to Germany's cause.

In many countries engaged in the war risings and revolutions have occurred since the cessation of hostilities, and Egypt is, like others, infected with the spirit of nationality, fanned to a flame by the events of the war. General, now Lord, Allenby is actively engaged in bringing order once again to Egypt, that pivot country, upon

the quietude of which the safety of the Suez Canal, the orderly government of the late Turkish dominions of Asia, and the security of the British Empire in India depend.

### 36. ASIA MINOR AND SYRIA

Asia Minor and the Euphrates valley are very interesting as being among the earliest homes of civilisation, and from the former, in great part, came the influence which developed into the wonderful culture of the ancient Greeks. Asia Minor consists of a table-land sloping to the shores of the Black Sea, the Aegean, and the Mediterranean.

It was once a land of prosperity, with great cities and busy seaports, including Greek colonies, exporting to western Europe not only spices, silks, and other valuable goods brought from more eastern lands by caravans, but vast quantities of corn. It became part of the Persian Empire when that power was at the height of its glory, and was brought under Greek rule when the all-conquering Alexander, in the 4th century B.C., made the realms of the Persian monarch his own.

The power of Greece fell before that of Rome, and still Asia Minor prospered. When the Arabs, fired by Mohammed, began their career of conquest, the prosperity of the country waned, and with the coming of the conquering Turks its doom was sealed. For the Turks, though great conquerors, were poor rulers, and Turkish rule has always lain like a blight on the countries which have had to endure its oppression.

The plateau, which is skirted by the Taurus mountains on the south and the Anti-Taurus on the north, rises eastward into the Armenian tableland, and from this rises the great bulk of Mount Ararat. From this point, which is on the Russian border, the dividing line of high land between Turkey and Persia starts. Across the Taurus range runs a pass, a deep gorge connecting Asia Minor with the fertile valley of the Euphrates and with Syria. Through this gateway the armies of Alexander the Great passed eastward on their victorious march ; the Turkish hordes entered on their way to Constantinople and to Europe ; and countless trading caravans have used it for ages.

The only river of any importance, the Kizil Irmak, flows into the Black Sea. Lake Van, the largest of the very few lakes, 80 miles long, receives the drainage of the Armenian plateau and is salt, having no outlet. Inland the climate is hot, with little rainfall, but cooler along the coasts, with frequent winter rains. The soil is naturally fertile, and the forests of the mountain slopes consist of beech, oak, ash, and other deciduous trees.

Near the coasts and in the valleys, the grape, olive, and fig grow freely, with the peach, apricot, plum, cherry, pomegranate, and other fruits, while wheat and barley are cultivated, though to a much smaller extent than formerly. The camel is the usual beast of burden, and the buffalo is used by farmers in place of the horse or the ox.

Smyrna, on the Aegean coast, is the chief city, and the real capital of Asia Minor. It is the great market of the Levant—the eastern end of the Mediterranean—exporting tobacco, silk, mohair—the fine silky wool of



the Angora goat—and rugs made from it, figs, raisins, valonia—a large acorn-cup used in tanning—and a variety of goods brought into the town by caravan. It has a very mixed population, Greeks, Armenians, and other foreigners being numerous.

Trebizond, on the Black Sea, is another busy port, to which caravans bring silks, carpets, and other exports from Persia, while it is the chief outlet for Armenian trade. Bitlis, the chief town of Armenia, manufactures a red cotton cloth and a good deal of jewellery. Being 5000 feet above sea-level near Lake Van, it has very cold winters, and the heavy snows sometimes interrupt its trade. Erzeroum, near which town rises the Euphrates, is a caravan centre and has a great trade with all the surrounding countries. Its own products are chiefly copper ware and morocco leather.

The Armenian Christians have in the past suffered terrible cruelties at the hands of the Turks; but they are naturally enterprising, and many of them are successful merchants, both within and outside the Turkish dominions. The Kurds, who inhabit the country east of Asia Minor and south of Armenia, are mountaineers, their flocks and herds being their chief support. Many live during the winter in the valleys, but take their flocks of sheep, about the end of May, to the small grassy plains which are found higher up among the hills and mountains.

During summer these plains, brilliant with flowers, present a very picturesque scene, for the Kurds, who pitch their tents there to take charge of the flocks, have with them their families and all their possessions. The valleys and lower hill-slopes are well-wooded, and in the former cotton, rice, and tobacco, with figs and other



fruits, are grown. Bears and wild pigs from the woods, however, often make raids on the crops.

Syria stretches along the Mediterranean coast to the borders of Egypt, and its southern portion, Palestine, or the Holy Land, is in many respects the most interesting land in the world. It was the home of the Hebrews, the chosen people, the scene of Christ's ministry, and the cradle of Christian civilisation. Some of the Christian churches to which the Apostles wrote letters were in towns in Asia Minor, though some of these are now little more than names.

The whole region, as we have seen, was conquered by the Turks, and the splendid mosque of Omar stands on the site of the Temple at Jerusalem; but they have never succeeded in crushing out the Christian religion. In Syria, and especially in Armenia, there are numbers of Christian monasteries, in the libraries of which, with other priceless manuscripts, some of the most ancient copies of different parts of the Bible have been preserved.

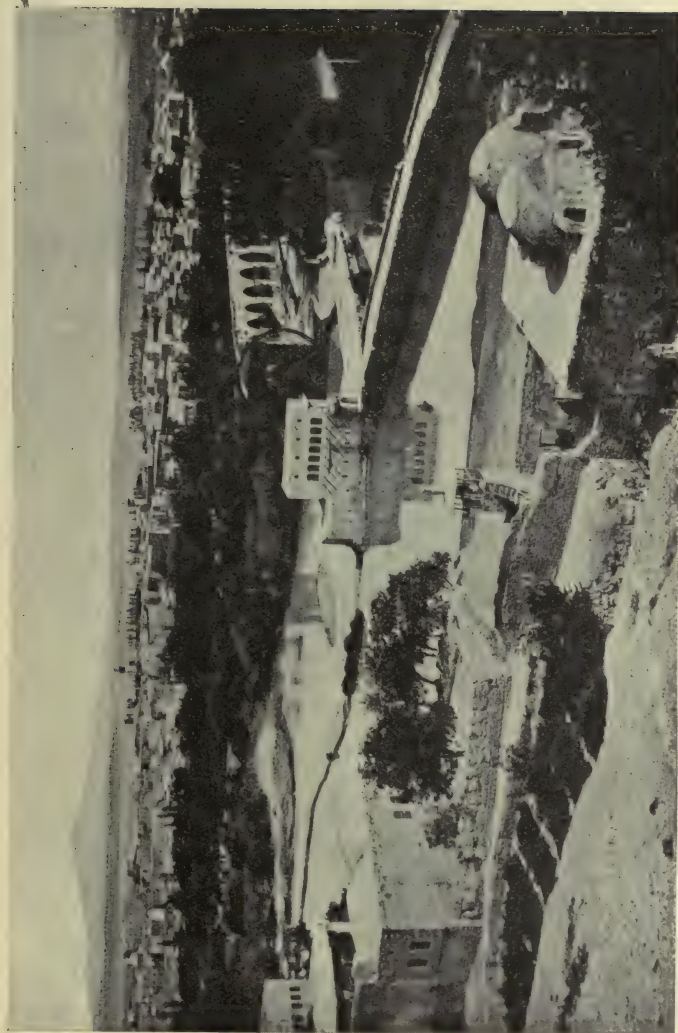
On the hills of the Lebanon range may still be seen specimens of the cedars for which they were famous before the time of Solomon. Parallel with this range runs another, Anti-Lebanon, and from one of its peaks flows the Jordan, which rises only 70 miles from the Dead Sea, into which it flows. Its constant windings, however, make it actually about 200 miles long.

The waters of the Dead Sea are intensely salt and rather slimy to the touch, while no fish can live in them. The old stories, however, about birds falling dead while flying over the surface are without foundation. Rock salt, nitre, and bitumen abound in the neighbourhood.

Farther north is the principal city of Syria, Damascus, probably the most ancient in the world, standing on fertile pasture land surrounded by deserts. Thousands of years ago it was the meeting place for caravans from the north, and for those trading between Egypt and the long buried cities of Nineveh and Babylon, while caravans from the Persian Gulf still pass through it. It was for centuries famous for the skill of its sword-blade makers, and the industry is still carried on. The costly fabrics known as damask also took their name from the city. With its fine buildings and its gardens planted with palms and other trees Damascus still presents a beautiful picture.

Between the two mountain ranges are the ruins of the ancient Heliopolis, the "City of the Sun," now called Baalbec. The squared masses of stone which were built into the walls of its temples are of enormous size, three blocks being each about 64 feet long and 13 feet high. There are similar ruins at Palmyra—the Tadmor of the Bible—which stands in an oasis in the Syrian desert. Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, famous for the oranges it exports, stands on the coast, and is joined to Jerusalem by a railway.

Farther north are the old cities of Tyre and Sidon, in Phoenicia, whose merchants carried on commerce with all parts of the then known world. They traded, for example, with the south of Britain long before the coming of Julius Caesar. Fifty miles from Damascus is Beirut, the port for that city, which itself has no natural harbour. Farther north is another port, Latakia, noted for its tobacco. Its ancient name, Laodicea, reminds us that here was one of the "seven churches of Asia." Aleppo, near the northern end of the Syrian



Damascus

coast, still trades by caravan with the Persian Gulf, by way of Damascus.

We will now pay a brief visit to two of the many islands lying off the coast of Asia Minor. Cyprus, the third largest island in the Mediterranean, has been under British control since 1878. Thanks to irrigation, it produces the vine, grain, cotton, and olives. In ancient times it was famous for its copper, its name being derived from the Greek word for that metal. Its chief town is Nicosia, and its port is Larnaka.

Rhodes is a fertile island, producing cotton, silk, vines, and pomegranates, as well as corn. It has a romantic history. In crusading days, when the Turks were the terror of Europe, it formed a bulwark against them, and was held for over two centuries by one of the famous military orders, the Knights of St John. Many were the heroic contests they waged against their bitter Moslem foes, but they were obliged to give up the island in 1522, and retired, first to Crete, and then to Malta.

### 37. THE NEW EUROPE

Changes in governments and the conditions under which nations live are, in most cases, brought about gradually. After wars, however, the changes are not only greater but altogether more sudden than in times of peace. It is not surprising, therefore, that after the greatest war the world has ever known, which began in the early days of August 1914 and continued till the representatives of Germany signed the Armistice on 11 November 1918, the changes have been so great that



we may truly describe the continent as the New Europe. If we take the old map of Europe and compare it with the one settled by the Peace of Versailles, we shall see that territory has passed from one country to another, new states have come into existence, and old ones are reduced in size.

We must look first at the Central Empires of Germany and Austria. France has acquired Alsace and part of Lorraine, which were taken by Germany after the Franco-German War in 1871. Adjoining the Lorraine boundary is the Saar basin, very rich in coal mines. These have been placed at the absolute service of France for a period of 15 years, in order that the loss of coal due to the damage done to the mines in northern France may be balanced by the coal she will obtain by working the German mines. At the end of this time the people of this tract of country will be called upon to decide whether they wish to remain connected with France or to return to German control. In the meantime the governing authority of the Saar basin will be a commission of the Allied and Associated Powers that opposed Germany in the war.

In a similar way Mid-Sleswig will not remain part of Germany. It has passed to Denmark, in accordance with the vote, or the plebiscite of the people, as this voting is called. Two small but important portions of German territory are given up and will, if the people desire it, remain part of Belgium. The western portion of the Rhine province is to remain in the occupation of the armies of the Allies for periods varying from 5 to 15 years, and on the eastern side of the river the bridgeheads, or the lands adjoining the ends of the bridges over the Rhine, will also be occupied by troops of the Allied Powers.

On the eastern side of Germany, the old state of Poland has been re-formed by the union of the Russian, Austrian, and Prussian parts into which it had been partitioned at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. The Free City of Danzig, at the mouth of the Vistula, with land surrounding it, has been constituted to give free access to the sea for the newly formed state of Poland. Thus we see that eastern Prussia is now separated from



Danzig

the main territory of Germany, and a portion of it, lying between the river Memel and the old boundary between East Prussia and Russia, is placed under the control of the Allied and Associated Powers for its final settlement.

Two parts of Germany in the east are marked out for the inhabitants to decide to which state they will belong in the future. One of these is the marches of east

Prussia, the region which includes the Masurian lakes, where, in the early days of the war, the Russians fought so bravely and relieved the pressure in the west, thus helping to save Paris from being overwhelmed by the Germans. The second portion awaiting the decision of the inhabitants, whether it will form part of Germany or Poland, is upper Silesia.

The Austro-Hungarian Empire, however, has suffered the greatest dismemberment. Formerly it was peopled by numerous races loosely held together; now the war has established their right to become independent states. Thus the old province of Bohemia, with its famous capital, Prague, becomes in the New Europe Czecho-Slovakia, and includes, besides Bohemia and Moravia, the new province of Slovakia. The inhabitants of the new state belong to the Slav race. The Czechs of Bohemia are the most learned of all the Slav peoples. They possess a magnificent national literature and excel both in music and art. The university of Prague is one of the most noted in Europe.

In like manner Austria has been shorn of her territory in the south, and in consequence has become a small country, like Switzerland, quite shut off from the sea. Jugo-Slavia, or the south Slav state thus formed, includes, besides the kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro, the Austro-Hungarian provinces of Croatia and Dalmatia, with the exception of small portions given to Italy or retained under the control of the League of Nations. Thus Croatia, Slavonia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and parts of Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola go to make up the lands of the southern Slavs; these stretch from the Danube to the Adriatic, and, including most of Macedonia, they cover a surface of 85,000 to 90,000 square



miles. These races, consisting of the Slovenes, Croats, and Serbs, are again united for the first time since the Middle Ages. Rumania is enlarged by the addition of Transylvania, most of the Bukovina, a part of the Banat from Hungary, and Bessarabia, formerly part of Russia; while Bulgaria receives concessions in the Dobruja.

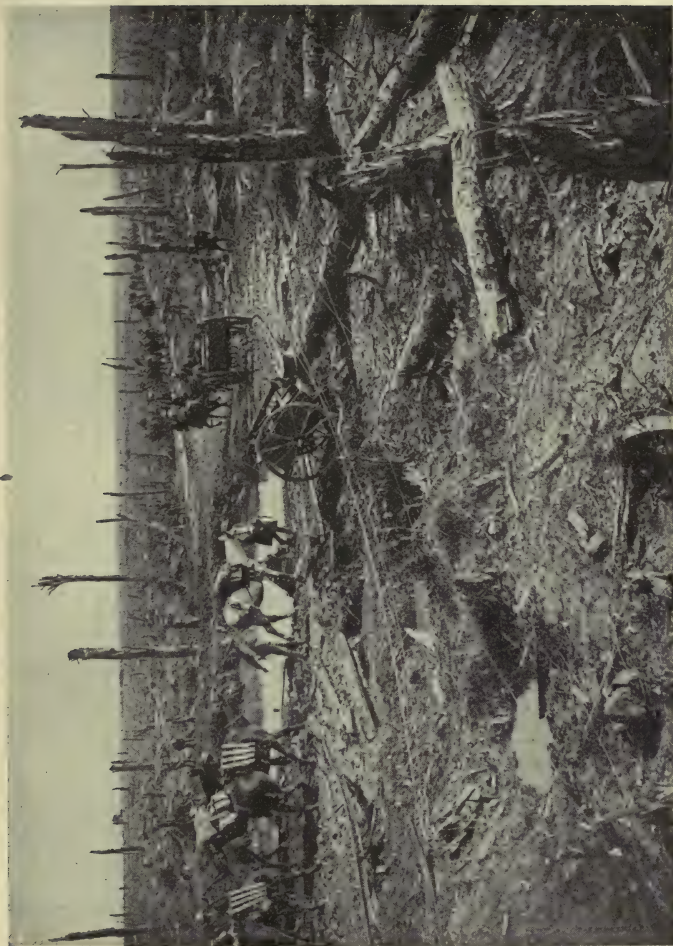
The southern part of the Austrian Tyrol, known as the Trentino, becomes Italian, and the peninsula of Istria, with the late Austrian port of Trieste, is also transferred to Italy. In addition to several claims of Italy and Jugoslavia that remain to be settled, new states have arisen on the Baltic coast. Esthonia, Finland, Lithuania, and Courland have declared their independence, which has been recognised by the Great Powers.

Whatever may be the final decisions of the Paris Conference with regard to the territory to be given to Greece along the European shores of the Aegean Sea and on the coast of Asia Minor, it has fully determined that the small remains of the Turkish Empire in Europe shall be so governed that the Turks will never again be a menace to the peace of Europe and the prosperity of the nations of the eastern Mediterranean.

These are the main changes brought about by the Peace of Versailles, but they mean much more than the construction of a new map of Europe. Of such unsurpassed magnitude was the four years' war that it is well to get some idea of the ravages it has made, as a key to the conditions of the state of the countries that must be put right before order can be restored.

"During its four years, the war depleted the world of life and wealth to a far greater degree than a century of the old Barbarian invasions. More than eight million men died in battle, and the casualties on all fronts were





In the war zone in Flanders, 1917-18

over 30 million. If we add deaths from disease and famine, it cannot have cost the population of the globe less than 20 million dead, and as many more broken and maimed for life. At least 40 thousand millions sterling of money were spent in the direct business of war. The losses of property were incalculable; over 15 million tons of the world's shipping have been destroyed."

If we look at the countries themselves in which the conflict took place, we see that the borders of Belgium and northern France, including many square miles and stretching from the North Sea to the Vosges, were torn to pieces by the shells of the contending armies. Towns have been wrecked, villages reduced to heaps of rubbish, and the smiling country-side, with its trees and woods, converted into a scene of utter desolation. In the retreat of the Germans, before their final defeat, some 23,000 miles of railway lines were torn up. It is, however, cheering to know that Belgium and France are working with a laudable zeal to reinstate order and manufacturing activity, and many miles of the French railway lines have been relaid. Large areas of land are now ready for sowing, and every endeavour is being made to obliterate the effect of a war that was a nightmare to the French before it broke out, and a very torture while it was in progress.

Farther east, Poland and Serbia, and later Rumania, have, in like manner, felt the horrors of a war without parallel in the pages of history. Poland and Serbia have twice endured its destruction, while Rumania was held helpless for many months under the iron heel of the German conqueror.

When we look back on the year 1914 and think of the sovereigns of the various European countries, some

idea of the new conditions may be gathered from what has happened to so many rulers. With the Russian revolution, which broke out in March 1917, the Tsar, ruling 180 millions of people, abdicated, and later was put to death with his family by the revolutionaries. Constantine, King of Greece, lost his throne soon after; and when the final defeat of Germany came in November 1918, the Kaiser William II fled to an exile's life in Holland. All the kings and princes of the German states have disappeared as rulers. The Emperor of Austria fled from his throne to Switzerland, and King Ferdinand of Bulgaria abdicated in October 1918 and retired to his estates in Hungary.

A great ferment and unrest exists in many countries of Europe, and much time and devoted labour is required to see order brought out of chaos. In spite of this, however, and the civil war that rages in Russia, the nations feel that they will be no longer menaced by the teaching that "might is right," and in course of time they will be able to express their own national ideals and work for progress in their own way, whether they exist as small or great states.

Although the great victory for nationality has been won, yet never in the world's history has it been so clearly brought home to the peoples of all countries that for their own progress it is necessary to respect the needs of others. The neutral countries of the continent have been spared the actual horrors of war, but the privations they have endured and the obstacles to their peaceful progress have been second only to the trials of the belligerent nations. The members of the Peace Conference held in Paris during the early months of 1919 realised this so thoroughly that they placed

in the front of all the treaties of peace the Covenant of the League of Nations. This provides the machinery for the delaying of future wars until every effort possible has been made to prevent their occurrence. The success of the League means that the opportunity is offered to all the nations to solve the great question of how to pay off the huge debts that face all the peoples of Europe.

After the Congress of Vienna in 1815 "the Holy Alliance" was formed, having a similar object. This failed because it was a league of rulers ; the Covenant of the League of Nations will not fail if the peoples of the various countries become imbued with the conviction that it is not an alliance of governments, but a union of nations. If the League is worked out by them with enthusiasm, it will, indeed, make the old continent a New Europe, not only in name but in reality, and the starving millions will once again have bread enough and to spare.



# QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

## PART I

### SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF GEOGRAPHY

#### CHAPTER 1

1. Mention any changes that are taking place on the earth's surface and say how they are brought about.
2. Explain the terms "relief" and "Contour map." What is meant by saying "Mont Blanc is 15,000 feet high"?
3. Name the rivers of the world noted for their deltas and say how they were formed.

#### CHAPTER 2

1. Explain how the atmosphere is warmed.
2. What do the following terms mean : "temperature," "pressure of the atmosphere," "isothermal lines," and "isobars"?
3. Name the five zones and give the climate and productions of each.

#### CHAPTER 3

1. What is the reason that south-west winds bring more rain than east winds to the British Isles?
2. Distinguish between "weather" and "climate" and explain what is meant by a "Continental" climate.

#### CHAPTER 4

1. Describe the necessary conditions for plants to thrive.
2. Under what conditions of climate do evergreen, deciduous, and fir trees grow?

#### CHAPTER 5

1. Trace a map of Europe and insert the names of towns engaged in the iron manufacture in Britain, France, Germany, and Belgium.
2. Explain the terms "High German" and "Low German" speech. Which is the more interesting to people of Britain?

## PART II

## THE BRITISH ISLES AND NORTH-WESTERN EUROPE

## CHAPTER 6

1. Give reasons for believing that the British Isles were once joined to the continent of Europe.
2. Draw a map of the Baltic sea.
3. Show how the south-west winds from the Atlantic ocean are beneficial to the British Isles and North-West Europe.

## CHAPTER 7

1. Describe the seas around the British Isles.
2. Explain why Tilbury Dock, Avonmouth, and Cuxhaven have arisen in recent years.
3. Trace a map of the British Isles, and mark the various branches of the tidal-wave split up by the Continental shelf.

## CHAPTER 8

1. "The history of Britain and France has been closely connected." Give some events to prove this.
2. Describe the wine-producing regions of France.

## CHAPTER 9

1. Describe briefly the city of Paris.
2. Write a few details about the following :—The Eiffel Tower, the Place de la Concorde, the Champs Élysées, and the Louvre.

## CHAPTER 10

1. Give a short account of the agriculture of France.
2. Where are the following made in France :—Cotton goods, silk goods, iron ware, ribbons, and porcelain ?
3. Draw a map of France showing how the rivers are linked up by canals.

## CHAPTER 11

1. Give a brief description of Marseilles.
2. What interest have the following French towns for British people ? Rouen, Orleans, Falaise, Bayeux, and Tours.
3. Where is the Riviera and why is it so famous ? Mention its chief towns.

CHAPTER 12

1. How is the coast of Belgium protected from the ravages of the sea ?
2. Write a brief account of Belgian manufactures before the War.

CHAPTER 13

1. Give a brief description of Bruges, and show how it was connected with the late war.
2. Describe Antwerp and explain why it is such an important port.
3. Give a few particulars of the following:—Louvain, Liège, Mons, Namur, and Dinant.

CHAPTER 14

1. Give a short account of Dutch bulb-growing and cheese making.
2. Why are there so many canals in Holland ? Describe a scene in winter.

CHAPTER 15

1. Describe the city of Amsterdam.
2. Write a few details of Rotterdam, The Hague, Utrecht, and Haarlem.
3. What is a "polder," and between what two towns is the great polder to be found ?

CHAPTER 16

1. Describe the productions and occupations of the people of Denmark.
2. Write a brief description of Copenhagen.
3. Give some particulars of Iceland and its people.

CHAPTER 17

1. Describe the coast of Norway and explain the description "the Land of the Midnight Sun."
2. Write a short description of the industries of Norway.
3. Give a few particulars about Christiania.

CHAPTER 18

1. Compare the countries of Norway and Sweden, and say in what ways they are similar and in what they differ.
2. Give some particulars of Stockholm, Göteborg, and Upsala.
3. Describe the industries of Sweden.

## CHAPTER 19

1. Contrast summer and winter on the tundras.
2. Write a short description of the life of the Laplander.

## CHAPTER 20

1. Contrast the Northern and Southern parts of Germany, and give their productions.
2. Describe the "Spectre of the Brocken."
3. Give an account of the rivers of Germany.

## CHAPTER 21

1. Write a short description of the German people, their system of education and training.
2. Give some particulars of the crops cultivated, and of the cattle reared in Germany.
3. What are the mining and manufacturing industries of Germany?

## CHAPTER 22

1. Describe the city of Berlin.
2. Write a few particulars of Hamburg, Munich, Leipzig, Nuremberg, Dresden, and Breslau.

## PART III

## THE MEDITERRANEAN

## CHAPTER 23

1. Give a description of the Mediterranean Sea.
2. Write a few particulars about the Aegean and Adriatic Seas.

## CHAPTER 24

1. Describe Gibraltar. State its importance, and how it came into the possession of Britain.
2. Where are the Maltese islands? Explain their importance to Britain.
3. Give some particulars about Crete.



## CHAPTER 25

1. Describe the surface and rivers of the Spanish peninsula.
2. What are the industries of Spain and Portugal?

## CHAPTER 26

1. Describe the capital of Spain.
2. Explain: Escorial, Bull-Ring, Peninsular War, Moors, Alhambra.
3. Write a few notes about Granada, Cordova, Toledo, Barcelona, Cadiz, Seville, Lisbon, and Oporto.

## CHAPTER 27

1. Describe the physical features of Italy.
2. Give some particulars of the Plain of Lombardy and its vegetable productions.
3. Show how the discovery of the route round the Cape of Good Hope and the construction of the Suez Canal have affected Italy.

## CHAPTERS 28 AND 29

1. Explain: "Eternal City," "See Naples and die," "The Arch of Titus," Roman Campagna.
2. Give particulars of the Coliseum and of what took place there.
3. What do you know about St Peter's and the Vatican?
4. Write a short account of Naples and its surroundings.
5. Write notes on Milan, Florence, Pisa, Leghorn, Genoa, and Brindisi, and draw a sketch-map showing their positions.

## CHAPTER 30

1. Describe the physical features of the Balkan peninsula.
2. Write a description of Serbia and state how it has been enlarged into the new state of Jugo-Slavia.
3. Draw a map of Bulgaria and Rumania.

## CHAPTER 31

1. Give a description of Constantinople.
2. What are the following: Dardanelles, Bosphorus, Golden Horn, Stambul

## CHAPTER 32

1. Give a brief description of the physical features of Greece.
2. Name the chief features of the climate and vegetable products of Greece.
3. Tell the stories of the battle of Marathon and of the pass of Thermopylae.
4. What do you know of Athens and Corinth?

## CHAPTER 33

1. Where was Sparta situated and what was the nature of the training of its citizens?
2. Give an account of Crete and its wonderful builders.

## CHAPTER 34

1. Mention the states along the African shores of the Mediterranean and by what European countries they are controlled.
2. Write a short account of Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli.
3. Give a few particulars of:—Tangier, Algiers, Fez, Tunis, and Kairwan.

## CHAPTER 35

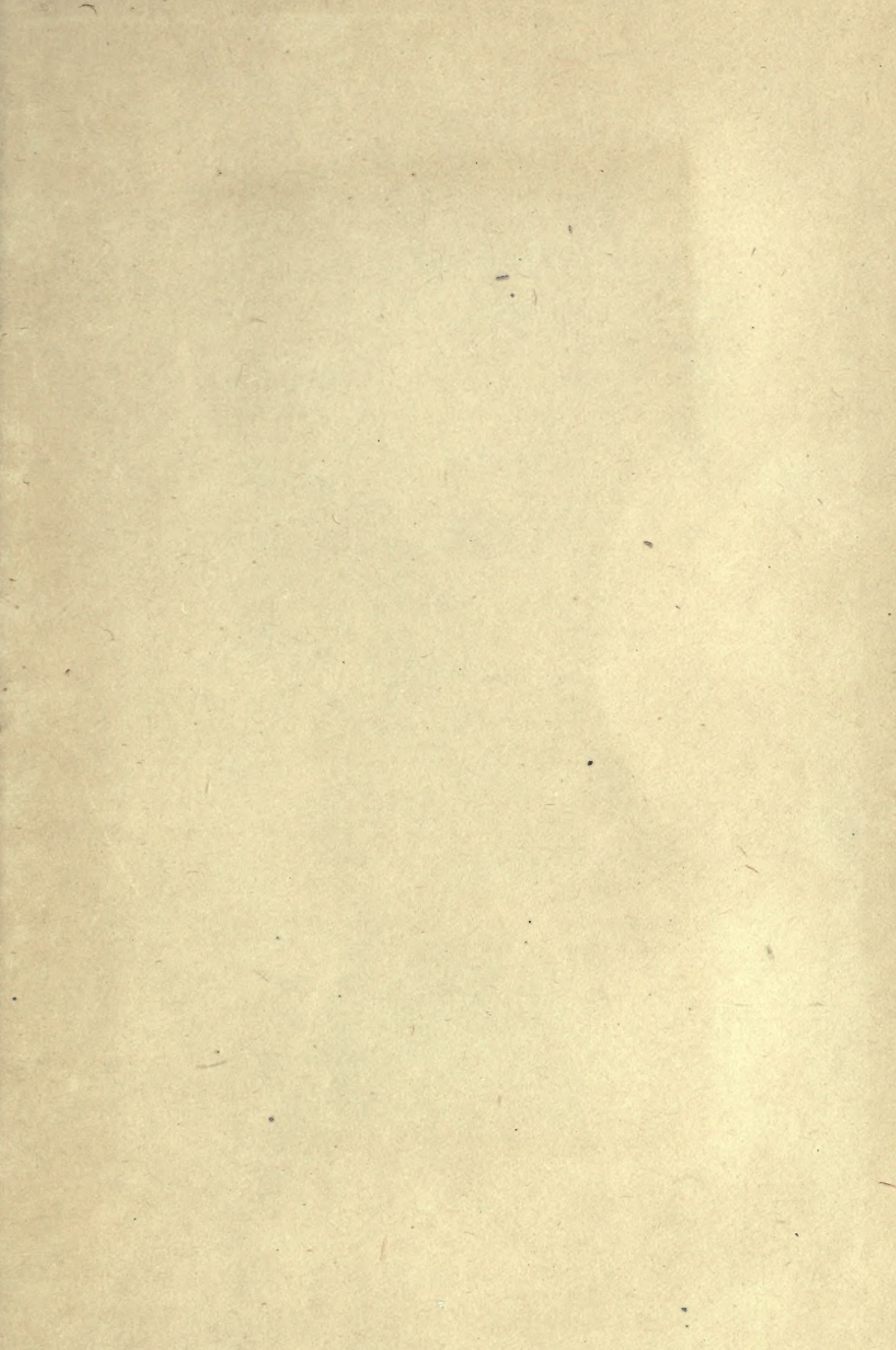
1. Explain what is meant by "Egypt is the gift of the Nile."
2. Give a brief account of the Pyramids and of the figures of the kings at Thebes.

## CHAPTER 36

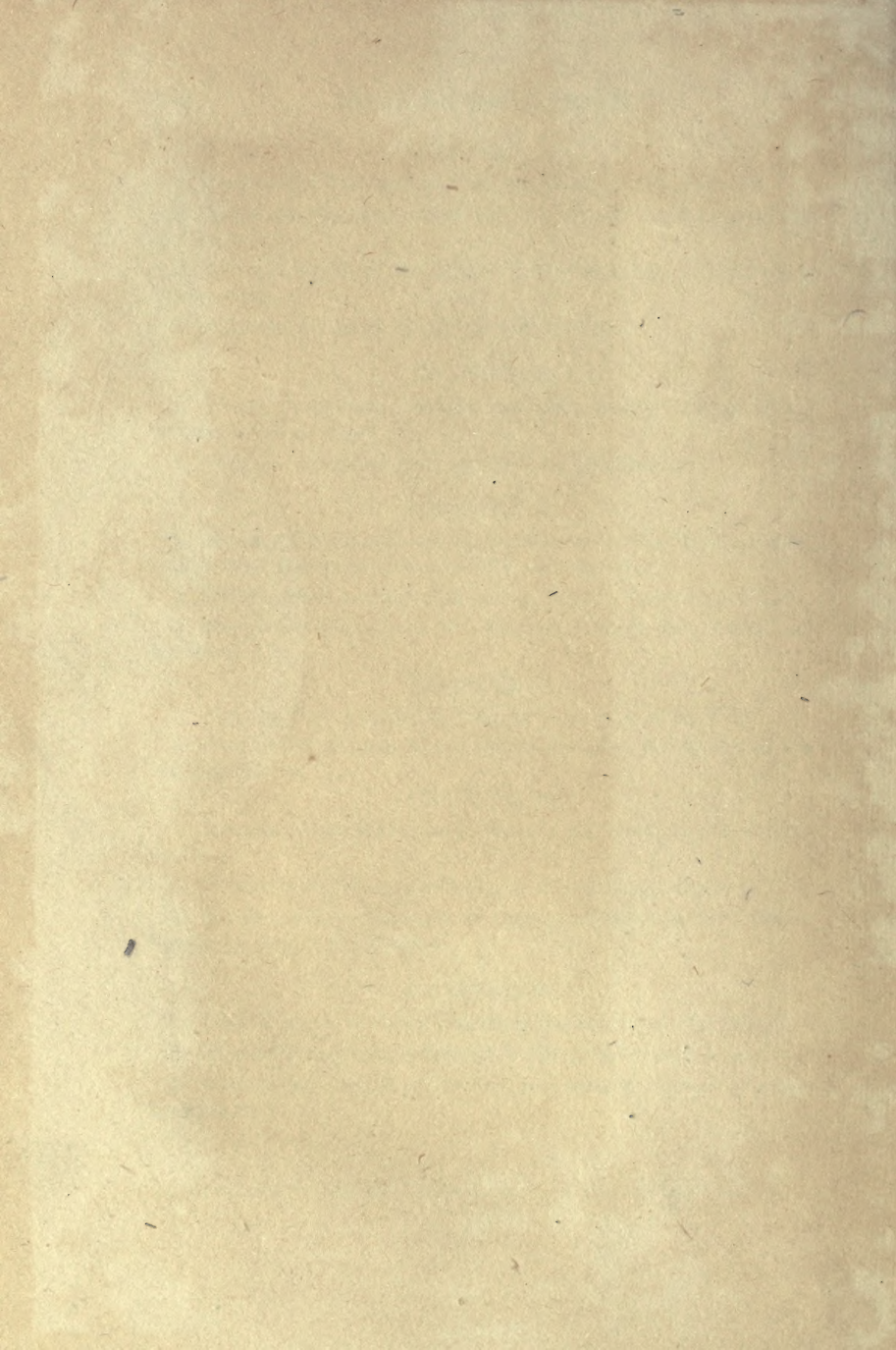
1. Describe Asia Minor, and mention its chief vegetable productions.
2. Why is Palestine so interesting to all Christian peoples?
3. Mention some particulars of Smyrna, Jerusalem, Tyre, Sidon, Damascus, Joppa, and Cyprus.

## CHAPTER 37

1. What changes in German territory has the Great War brought?
2. Mention the new states formed in Europe as a result of the War.
3. What is the League of Nations, and what is required to make it successful?









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